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ABSTRACT

This book emphasizes the application of counseling, guidance, and counseling psychology principles in the classroom. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the role of counseling and guidance in schools, and chapter 2 presents basic theoretical models applicable to teachers, including the theories of Piaget, Kohlberg, Erikson, and Havighurst. Chapter 3 describes communication techniques for teachers. Chapter 4 focuses on the use of test information and includes sections on testing terminology, kinds of standardized tests, uses and misuses of such tests, sources of information about tests, and statewide assessment programs. Chapter 5 explains how teachers can interrelate nonstandardized information with other data. Discussions focus on observational techniques, rating scales, sociometric techniques, autobiographies, anecdotal records, and case studies. Chapter 6 concentrates on self-concept and discipline. Chapter 7 explores the teacher and group situations, and chapter 8 describes work with special groups. Chapter 9 looks at career and vocational development, while chapter 10 provides occupational, vocational, and education information. Chapter 11 focuses on developing relationships. Chapter 12 describes teaching students with special problems (drug and alcohol abuse, single-parent families, death and dying, and juvenile delinquency) and chapter 13 looks at special problems of teachers. The final chapter focuses on the application of statistical concepts to test data. Each chapter concludes with its own bibliography, most also include a summary, and some contain lists of activities and suggested readings. (NB)

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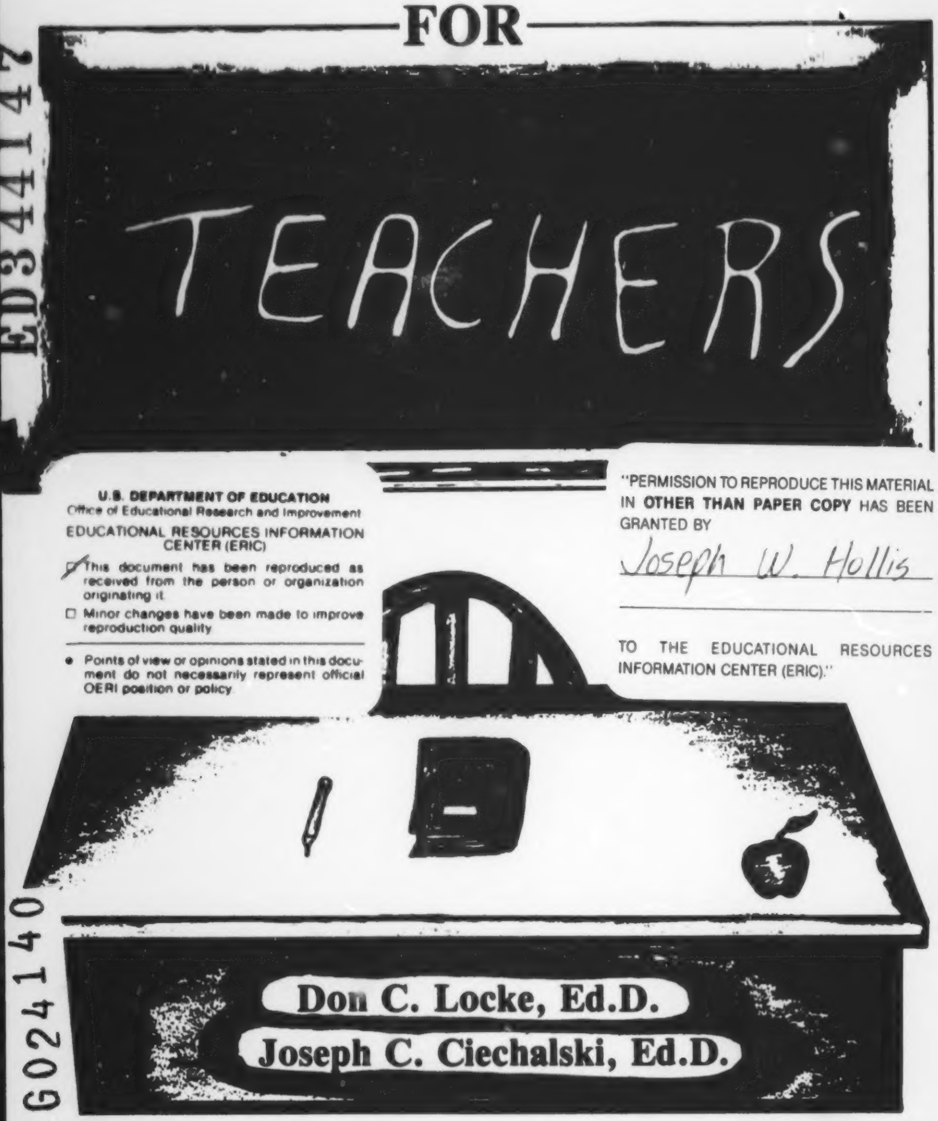

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PSYCHOLOGICAL TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHERS

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DEDICATION

To our parents Willie and Carlene
Charles and Olga

PREFACE

The primary purpose of this book is to emphasize the application of counseling, guidance, and counseling psychology principles in the classroom. Whether a pre-service or in-service teacher, this book will help you to be a better teacher. Your background in education will be enriched through an exposure to a variety of problems and the application of counseling, guidance, and psychological principles to the solution of those problems. You will develop a greater appreciation and understanding of children while improving your ability to teach them. The material in the book has been arranged in fourteen chapters which can be adapted to either a semester or a quarter course. The material is organized so that a chapter may be used independently without having to read preliminary material.

The fundamental belief of the authors, elaborated in every chapter, is that teachers have a major role in the total psychological climate within a school. We have chosen to illustrate how teachers may be successful as human relations persons while incorporating psychological techniques into regular classroom activities. We begin from the assumption that every child is a spark or an ember and can become a flame. The teacher is the one who can and hopefully will kindle that spark. That is to say, the essence of the educative process is to involve students to the extent that they will change in desirable ways as they learn academic material. The curriculum must be conceived as the means by which students achieve social and emotional roles and adjustments.

A teacher must know each student individually, much more than test scores, social class, or economic status. An empathic understanding will encourage maximum growth of every student. Students who perceive teachers as interested in them will likely respond by showing interest in classroom activities. This book will help you communicate to each student that he/she is important, special, and worthy. In doing so you may become the most meaningful and positive person in each of your student's lives.

January 1985

Don C Locke

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Many people contribute to the development of a book, yet not all of them can be thanked individually. As we recall the evolution of this book, we would particularly like to acknowledge the support of Dean Carl J. Dolce and former department head Professor William Hopke, both of whom supported the initial idea of putting this work together. Conversations with many students and colleagues have contributed to the book. We note, in particular, the contributions of Carol Baker, Chris Kaman, and reviewers who read drafts of the manuscript. Robin West Hughes not only typed several drafts of the manuscript but provided her own understanding and support of the effort. Norm Sprinthall always provided encouragement when the effort seemed too difficult. Our families, especially Marjorie, Tonya, Regina, Charles, and Olga provided consistent moral support and also occasional help with reading, proofing, and other details. Lucile (Pat) Hollis, our editor at Accelerated Development Inc., quickly perceived the unique features of the book, its importance at this time, and guided it to completion. To each of you, we say thank you.

Don C. Locke

Joseph C. Ciechalski

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PSYCHOLOGICAL TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHERS

CHAPTER 1

ROLE OF COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE IN SCHOOLS

Teaching is a difficult task, and the difficulties faced by teachers are often not related to imparting of knowledge. Teachers are expected to teach the whole child. This means having an understanding of social, emotional, personal, and vocational aspects of a student's life in addition to the educational. Without doubt, what and how teachers perform have a tremendous impact on lives of students. Teachers may encounter students experiencing the following difficulties:

> *A student appears tense and upset. After class the teacher asks if something is wrong. The student tells that things she had said privately were overheard, repeated, and misinterpreted. As a result false rumors were started.*

One high school student comes over to you during lunch and said that he needs to talk to you. He tells you that his girlfriend had just "dumped" him and that he does not know how to handle it or what, if anything, to do.

You have a student who in the past obtained A's on most of his work. During the past three weeks, he has not handed in any assignments and has failed three tests. When you ask him if anything is wrong, he tells you that his parents are getting a divorce. He didn't know what was going to happen to him and his brother.

A student is habitually absent from school. Her mother frequently comes to school to get her out early to run errands. She is dangerously close to failing because of the school policy on absences.

A student was having problems choosing a college to attend. His parents chose one school and he another. They wanted him to attend his father's alma mater. He wanted a career as an engineer so he felt it necessary to attend a school specializing in engineering instead of a liberal arts college.

Teachers confronted with similar problems may be able to help students by using a variety of guidance/counseling techniques. The purpose of this book is to help both prospective teachers and those already teaching understand the nature of problems likely to occur and to offer a means of resolving such problems. No attempt will be made to *solve* problems *per se,* however what will be offered are practical alternatives, using guidance and counseling techniques, for understanding the complexities involved in the teaching/learning process.

Relationships between students and teachers succeed in part because of positive interactions—interactions that can be strengthened by understanding and utilizing guidance skills. The teacher becomes a dynamic guiding force in each student's life.

Professional teachers learn various skills, methods, theories, and techniques to facilitate meeting students' academic, personal, and social needs. Skills for academic needs are emphasized in teacher education programs; skills for personal and social needs may be acquired in related counseling psychology or guidance service programs. Each teacher training program must be directed to a certain goal for enrollee development.

Responsibility of the teacher candidate is to plan a program to develop needed skills, theories, methods, and techniques for his/her teaching career.

Within the last few years a number of universities have initiated undergraduate, interpersonal relationship courses which are available for teacher candidates in counseling and psychology departments. Another trend is that some teacher education programs are requiring teacher candidates to complete at least one counseling skills course. This requirement is supported by some state certification programs.

Two major purposes of this book are to enable the teacher to become even more aware of academic, personal, and social needs of their students and to provide means of satisfying these needs. Major guidance areas pertinent to teachers will be presented in depth as much as is possible within a single book. Reading and understanding the material in the fourteen chapters of this book will provide the teacher with an adequate foundation on which to build effective guidance practices. Then the teacher can work conjointly with a school counselor. Where no school counselor is available, the teacher can be better prepared to meet the guidance needs of students.

WHAT IS GUIDANCE

When one of the authors attended public school, the school did not have a guidance counselor. His social studies teacher was his homeroom teacher and guidance instructor. Every Monday morning, the homeroom period was reserved for guidance. The teacher said that this period would help us to understand ourselves better. During the guidance period, discussed was proper diet, good health, rest, budgeting time, getting along with others, how to study, planning for our future, what to do if we had a problem, and understanding grades. We were expected to listen and no grade was assigned.

Guidance and teaching processes are similar. Guidance and teaching activities are, for the most part, cognitive and structured. Both work toward stated outcomes. These activities may be illustrated by observing a teacher in a math class and a counselor discussing study skills with a group of students. Study skills also can be taught by a classroom teacher.

Each of these activities have *clearly* defined objectives and both are teaching concepts which need to be learned by students.

In the previous example, both the math teacher and the guidance counselor had defined goals and objectives. Teaching and group guidance activities are group-oriented and may involve some or all members of a group. In addition, both activities are demanding because they require that a given amount of material be probed.

Guidance does not provide answers but permits each student to resolve conflict by providing necessary information and a climate for change. It places emphasis on dignity and worth of each individual without manipulation. To resolve a conflict, the student must first understand him/herself. This self-discovery may involve understanding his/her strengths and weaknesses, likes and dislikes, and place in the real world.

Using concepts developed thus far, we can define guidance as a process of guiding or helping an individual in a nonthreatening environment without manipulation to manage effectively his/her social activities, career, education, and personal concerns and interests.

Therefore, most teachers can provide various guidance activities for their students; however, most teachers are not trained to counsel their students. While counseling is one of the many functions of guidance, in-depth counseling is an area reserved for the certified or licensed school counselor. However, the use of many counseling techniques can be learned and effectively used by the classroom teacher.

WHAT IS COUNSELING

In a statement entitled "What is Counseling?" published by the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) (1981) currently the American Association for Counseling and Development (AACD) counseling was defined as

> . . . the art of helping people. Professional counselors are individuals trained to share knowledge and skills with those who need help. Counseling recognizes that all persons need help as they routinely pass through childhood, adolescence, and

> adulthood. Effective counseling is preventive. Counselors help persons with their personal, social, career, and educational development. Counselors serve people through schools, colleges, community agencies, and private practice. (p. 1)

Counseling is the interactive process between a helper (the counselor) and one or more others. As a process, counseling is less structured than guidance and teaching. School counselors usually have a master's degree with extensive study in psychology, sociology, mental health, and human resource development. They are usually certified by their state department of public instruction or licensing unit. Counselors use various counseling techniques, some of which can be acquired easily by the classroom teacher. In Chapter 3 these communication techniques are presented in more detail.

Counselors may help teachers learn counseling and guidance skills by providing in-service training. Teachers may list a number of areas in which they desire training. In-service training may include using and interpreting test results, improving and developing effective communication techniques, developing methods that may be used to establish rapport with students, and enhancing classroom management skills. Also, counselors may provide teachers with an understanding of the basic theoretical developmental models. Theories of Piaget, Kohlberg, Erickson, and Havighurst may provide the essentials for the teacher who desires to develop an understanding of student development and its impact upon growth, adjustment, and decision-making process. A discussion of theories of Piaget, Kohlberg, Erickson, and Havighurst are included in Chapter 2. With the assistance of the counselor through in-service training, the teacher may learn additional practical guidance skills to use with students.

THE TEACHER ROLE IN GUIDANCE

Some teachers believe that their only function in an instructional setting is to help their students be successful academically. These teachers may be effective with the cognitive domain but often ineffective concerning the individual's affective domain. While academic achievement of students is a primary obligation, the teacher in his/her role in guidance also considers the feeling level of students.

How does an effective teacher accomplish this? The teacher accepts the student as the student is, without reservation. Brammer and Shostrum (1982) cited four basic assumptions of acceptance: "the individual has infinite worth and dignity; a right to make his or her own decisions; the capacity or potential to choose wisely and to live a full, self-actualized, socially useful life; and is responsible for his or her own life" (p. 155). These assumptions are the necessary ingredients for facilitating harmonious relationships between teacher and student.

The key to developing harmonious relationships is communication. Several communication techniques are discussed in Chapter 3 including listening, reflection, clarification, questioning, interpretation, modeling, and reinforcement. In addition, the teacher will be introduced to the Rogerian terms of empathy, genuineness, and unconditional positive regard.

The teacher, for example, who listens attentively and is objective without making judgments often can help students resolve problems through considering alternatives. By considering alternatives with their students, teachers are permitting the student to resolve the problem in an objective and nonjudgmental environment. The objectivity, nonjudgmental attitude is present at the same time caring and empathy are transmitted. This attitude, in turn, develops a positive self-concept in students.

In their guidance role, objective, nonjudgmental, caring, and empathetic teachers should have fewer discipline problems. In Chapter 6 of this text are considered self-concept as a central factor in student discipline. When students have positive self-concepts, discipline problems are fewer. In addition, to help teachers reduce discipline problems, in Chapter 6 will be considered some classroom management techniques.

Chapter 11 incorporates the material presented in Chapters 3 and 6. In Chapter 11 is described studies, models, and workshops on relationships which teachers may find useful for their particular environment. Utilizing Chapters 3, 6, and 11, teachers will be able to create an environment that stimulates learning, is nonthreatening, and opens communication.

The Teacher Role in Groups

Teachers spend most of their time working with groups of students. Usually, a teacher may teach twenty to thirty students in a class and, if a secondary school teacher of specialized subjects, may have five or six such groups in a given day. Each class has a given goal or task. For example, in a social studies class, the goal may be to learn the process by which a Bill becomes Law.

In achieving this goal, the teacher may divide the class into groups. During the assignment, the teacher may observe how well each group is working. A teacher may observe that some groups get along well while others do not. The teacher soon discovers that another goal of this assignment is to enhance positive student interaction in achieving group goals. Therefore, this assignment has an affective goal in addition to the cognitive goal.

In Chapter 7 groups are examined including a review of group dynamics. Teachers will learn four patterns of seating arrangements. In addition, teachers will learn to recognize various roles performed by members of groups. To enable teachers to understand group processes, stages of group development are considered.

Whether a teacher is working with large or small groups, certain pitfalls must be understood by the teacher to have effective group interaction. Understanding these pitfalls, teachers will be able to form groups that will achieve desired goals. A discussion of these pitfalls is included in the section on group games and traps. Chapter 7 concludes with a brief discussion on working with parent groups.

Within each classroom, a teacher may encounter special groups. The teacher in his/her guidance role must be able to work effectively with these special groups. In Chapter 8 are considered two specific categories of students. The first category examines Black students and other minority groups. Nine lesson plans are included to help teachers build self-esteem and diminish prejudice among class members.

The second specific category is the exceptional student. This category includes learning disabled, emotionally handicapped, mentally handicapped, or gifted/talented. Within Chapter 8, PL94 142 is described as well as the Individualized Education Program (IEP).

The Teacher Role in Testing

The counselor is the professional who is involved directly with the client (student) in helping to use test results advantageously. In fact, the counselor role in test information utilization is the guidance function with which teachers are often most familiar.

Testing programs may include the state assessment program, county wide testing programs where a specific instrument is used, and the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills. Counselors also may administer individual and group intelligence tests as well as standardized achievement tests. Currently the controversy concerning tests and relevancy is creating a trend toward more test administration by psychologists, psychiatrists, and specialists as consultants.

What is the teacher role in testing? The answer to this question depends in part upon the school or school system in which the teacher works. For example, a school may require a teacher to administer the test, while in another school, a counselor, psychologist, or administrator may administer the test. In the latter case, the teacher may be required only to proctor the testing. Nevertheless, because teachers are affected by the testing program, they need to have at least a minimal understanding of testing terminology.

Because teachers will be exposed to school testing programs, they will have to become familiar with testing terms, the different kinds of standardized tests, as well as the uses of tests. In Chapter 4 teachers are provided with this information. It covers testing terms such as standardized tests, performance tests, verbal tests, speed and power tests, objective tests, norm and criterion referenced tests, validity and reliability, and test batteries.

Several kinds of standardized tests exist. Throughout their teaching career, teachers will come into contact with many of them. Chapter 4 contains information on achievement tests, interest tests, and projective tests. Teachers who want to extend their knowledge about standardized tests will find the section on sources of information about standardized tests helpful.

One of the authors worked as a counselor in several elementary and middle schools. He discovered that more time was spent in preparing for and administering standardized tests than in using the results to improve learning. In Chapter 4, therefore, will be presented common uses as well as misuses of standardized tests.

In Chapter 4 standardized tests are examined and in Chapter 14 the focus is on interpreting the results. The counselor has the responsibility to interpret test results to teachers and students. However, teachers have a responsibility to understand the interpretation. To enable teachers to develop a basic understanding of test results, Chapter 14 contains material for gaining basic statistical concepts. In addition, teachers who master these concepts will be able to analyze their classroom test results.

Chapter 14 also includes a discussion of the following statistical terms and concepts: ranking, frequency, class interval, histogram, bar graph, mode, median, mean, range, quartile deviation, standard deviation, norms, percentile, grade equivalents, standard scores, and standard error of measurement. Understanding these concepts will enable teachers to use test results more effectively.

The Teacher Role in the Provision of Information

The teacher role in the provision of information includes the following major areas: educational, personal, and career. The provision of information may be afforded through the use of test and nontest information. Used together, test and nontest data will provide the teacher with information that may help the student achieve his/her maximum potential.

Test information was described previously, therefore, the discussion begins with nontest information. Nontest information includes the information derived from cumulative records, anecdotal records, rating scales, observations, and sociometric techniques. Teachers who need to obtain information about a student would check the cumulative record.

The cumulative record contains information concerning a student's background. Teachers who need information about a student's family, previous grades, standardized test scores, attendance record, or previous teacher comments, will find it in the cumulative record. In addition, the teacher will find the student health record included in this record. The cumulative record, therefore, is a collection of information that has accumulated during the time a student has been in school.

Suppose that a teacher has a student who is having difficulty with his/her school work. The teacher checks the cumulative record and discovers that the student's grades have been dropping over the past three years. What can the teacher do?

If the school has a counselor, the teacher should discuss the problem with him/her. The counselor may suggest that the teacher observe the student and record the observations. In this case, the teacher may need to use the anecdotal record. The counselor may give the teacher a rating scale to complete. These and other nontest techniques will be described in Chapter 5.

In addition to the academic and personal areas, teachers may be required to provide their students with information about careers. To provide their students with career information, teachers need to become familiar with career development theories, sources of information about careers, and factors which may interrupt career development.

In Chapter 9 are examined a few major factors that may directly impact an individual's career development. The factors considered include the dropout, pregnant teenager, drug and alcohol abuse, the delinquent, and minorities.

To acquaint the reader with career development theories, a description of four career development theories is presented. Those theories selected focus on matching people to jobs, how child rearing may determine career selection, how personality, self-concept, life-stages, vocational maturity, and other factors influence career decisions.

Concepts learned in the discussion of career development theories may be used by teachers in developing a unit or program in careers. Teachers are given suggestions for writing career objectives geared toward their students' level. In addition, the chapter concludes with suggestions for selecting appropriate activities as well as methods for evaluating the program.

Chapter 10 will provide teachers with some of the basic sources of occupational, vocational, and educational information. *The Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Occupational Outlook Handbook, Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance, and Exploring Careers* will provide teachers and students with answers to such questions as: "What training is required to become a doctor?" "What are the qualifications needed to become a postal worker?" Becoming familiar with these sources of career information should enable the teacher to handle such inquiries.

Other sources of career information are the community and the school. Teachers need to know industries, businesses, and agencies that employ most graduates. The local State Employment Service will send employment counselors to your school to help students with their occupational concerns.

For a listing of local industries and businesses, a teacher may check the telephone book. Teachers will find that personnel from companies are willing to come to school to discuss their occupations.

Some students will continue their education after graduating from high school. Teachers will find the sources of college, vocational, and trade school information in Chapter 10 worthwhile. Teachers who become familiar with the material described in this chapter will be able to answer questions as: "Where can I get a degree in mortuary science?" "I am moving to Missouri, where can I obtain a degree in Pharmacy?", or "What school can I attend to become a radiologist?"

Finally, because many schools have one or more microcomputers, teachers may need to become aware of the software packages available. Usually, using software packages available concerning college and career information will help to reduce the time required in the career, occupational, and educational information process.

Throughout a student's years in school, he/she may seek answers to questions of an occupational, vocational, or educational nature. Teachers may need to obtain additional information about their students. In the role of providing information, teachers will be better able to help their students become successful in school and in the world of work.

RESOLVING PROBLEM AREAS

Understanding and practicing the guidance concepts discussed thus far will enable teachers to work effectively with specific problems. These specific problems are divided into two categories: student problems and teacher problems.

The teacher has responsibilities to identify students who may encounter problems and to help them resolve the problem. Chapter 12 describes four major problem areas of students. These areas include drug and alcohol abuse, students from single parent homes, delinquent students, and death and dying.

Students who have problems in any of these areas may be identified by the teacher who understands his/her guidance role. A student who is normally happy may become sad, a discipline problem, fall asleep in class, or fail one or more subjects. The teacher in his/her guidance role will be able to identify the problem, obtain help, and thus resolve the problem.

Teachers also may encounter problems of a personal nature. Some of these problems may be encountered by the demands of teaching in general. In coping with the physical, intellectual, social, and moral development of their students, no one should be surprised to discover the number of teachers who encounter stress and burn-out. In Chapter 13 will be examined stress and burn-out of teachers in detail.

In addition to discussing stress and burn-out, Chapter 13 contains information to aid in examining the problems encountered by first-year teachers. Teachers always will face challenges in the classroom; however, the beginning teacher may face many more unexpected challenges than one who has taught for several years. Knowing what to expect from teaching may help the first-year teacher reduce discipline problems as well as making the first-year experience worthwhile. Studies of first-year teachers can help a beginning teacher understand the role and function during the initial period.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER

Effective teachers are usually friendly, patient, and understanding. The teacher who usually has a smile for everyone and appears to enjoy his/her job is often accepted by students. This friendly behavior often causes students to remain after class to discuss some personal concerns and problems.

Another characteristic of an effective teacher is patience. Teachers who are patient usually understand that their class includes individuals who may be at different learning levels. Patient teachers usually provide students with a positive learning environment. This environment gives students an opportunity to inquire and explore areas of development and concern. *Answers to problems are not as important as means of arriving at answers.*

Understanding is another important characteristic of the effective teacher. Understanding means that the teacher is aware of his/her students' abilities, interests, aptitudes, and different backgrounds. Because students are individuals, possessing individual needs, effective teachers know that by understanding a student's present needs they can prepare the student to accomplish future goals. Effective teachers know what to expect from and how to help their students achieve their maximum potentials.

ADVISOR-ADVISEE PROGRAMS

While our intent in writing this text is to provide a means by which classroom teachers can incorporate guidance techniques into their regular routine, it is possible to develop a more formal program based on these concepts. One such program is referred to as an advisor-advisee program. This program is a planned approach to providing routine and systematic contact between a teacher and a student where the primary goal is positive self-awareness and growth for the student. A teacher would be assigned a group of students, usually fewer than 20, and would meet these students individually and as a group throughout the school year.

The overall goal of such a program is to guarantee that every student will have a significant adult in the school with whom he/she has established a personal caring relationship. When necessary and appropriate the teacher may serve as an advocate for the student, may assist in decision making, and may serve as a link between the school and the home. Such activities are designed to supplement, not replace, the work of the school counselor. Realistically speaking, a counselor who is responsible for 300-1000 students simply cannot develop the relationship a teacher-advisor can develop with 20 students. In many schools two groups of students receive major attention: the academically gifted and/or talented and other children in the "exceptional category."

Teachers sometime say that the "average student" receives little attention. The Advisor-Advisee program offers all students the contact with an adult in the school. When the need arises, an advisor may facilitate the involvement of a student with a counselor.

An Advisor-Advisee program is a formal means by which a school can become more responsive to the needs of every student. With enthusiasm and sensitivity, a teacher can be more responsive not only to the academic and vocational needs of each student but also to the total student. Implementation and operation of an Advisor-Advisee Program should produce meaningful teacher-student relationships which should foster the development of positive educational experiences.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter is to give teachers a brief exposure to guidance concepts. Guidance and counseling are defined and an overview of teachers roles in guidance are surveyed. A brief summary of each chapter was included to give the reader an exposure to the guidance concepts developed in this book. Understanding these concepts will help the new and veteran teacher become more effective in the classroom. The hope is that an awareness of various guidance concepts presented will help the teacher reduce problems. Nevertheless, problems will occur. No matter how serious the problem, remember that you are not alone. If the problem appears to be beyond your training, you can seek help from your school counselor or principal. Most problems, no matter how serious, can be resolved.

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CHAPTER 2

BASIC THEORETICAL MODELS APPLICABLE TO TEACHING

Each teacher has a primary responsibility to help students learn. Selection of materials, goals, objectives, and desired outcomes is based on learner and learning process. The teacher coordinates components of the learning process—theory and practice. Because developmental theorists conclude that children proceed through separate identifiable, age-related stages of intellectual, social, and cognitive development, reviewing several of these theories of development contributes to a holistic approach of knowledge.

Teachers frequently ask the question: "What is the nature of students I teach?" To answer such a question would require one to explore numerous avenues and a variety of concepts. A more focused question might be: "What is the nature of each individual student I teach?" Differences between students are so numerous and complex. Consider the range of differences which might be observed in a single classroom—ages, ability levels, social levels, emotional levels—enough to make it difficult to determine what they have in common.

The goal of theory study is to determine scientific techniques useful in evaluating the behavior of students in a classroom. The four theories presented in this chapter are relatively simple and straightforward in their attempts to explain behavior of children. Each theory makes certain speculations about children which can be translated into observable, measurable behaviors. These four theories are examined in relation to the underlying assumptions. These assumptions serve as a basis for much of the material which follows in this book.

JEAN PIAGET

Jean Piaget (1896-1980), a Swiss psychologist, is considered a pioneer in the area of developmental psychology. Wadsworth (1971) has provided an excellent summary of the work of Piaget. Piaget developed his system as an attempt to uncover developmental changes in individual cognitive functioning from birth through adolescence. He sought to answer two basic questions: How are children able to adapt to their environments? How can development be classified in a simple, accurate way?

Because Piaget borrowed much from the biological sciences, he found the answer to the first question by viewing how organisms adapt to their environments. Piaget concluded that children adapt to their environment through either *assimilation* or *accommodation*. Assimilation suggests that the child employs a response already learned to react to a new stimulus. For example, a child identifies a collie dog as an animal with four legs, a long bushy tail, a wet nose, and so forth. On the first occasion that a horse is seen, a child is quite likely to identify the new animal as a large collie dog. The child has reviewed his/her repertoire of animals and concluded that the two animals have similar characteristics.

The horse was assimilated into the framework of the definition of collie dog. Thus assimilation is the process by which new environmental stimuli are placed into existing frameworks. The child is increasing the number (quantity) of existing frameworks into which new experience can be placed.

Accommodation is the process by which a child internalizes a stimuli which does not fit any of the frameworks which already are possessed. When a child is presented with a situation for which no reference exists, the child must create a completely new framework in which to place completely new material. Sometimes the child can modify extensively an existing framework that the new material will fit. In both cases, accommodation is the result. Suppose that the same child who had internalized the meaning of collie dog is confronted by an opossum. Suddenly enough difference between this animal and the dog is seen so that the opossum does not fit into the framework of the dog. A young child may create a completely new framework into which the opossum may be placed. An older child may see the similarity between the two and place the opossum into the "animal framework." Both of these views are examples of accommodation. Accommodation is a qualitative change in the existing frameworks into which new experiences are placed. Once the child has developed the new framework, the child can assimilate the new experience. Assimilation is always the final stage.

Piaget suggested that children seek to maintain equilibrium by balancing the amount of assimilation and accommodation. When equilibrium is not maintained the child is motivated to seek a balance. The level of cognitive development will determine the means by which the child will maintain this desired stage of balance.

PIAGET'S COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT STAGES

Piaget developed four stages of cognitive development through which the child progresses. Through the developmental stage theory Piaget was able to answer the second question: How can development be classified in a simple, accurate way?

Piaget (1963) divided cognitive development into four major stages and approximate corresponding ages. These are presented in Table 2.1. A brief description of Piaget's four stages are provided based upon Berzonsky (1978).

Table 2.1

Piaget's Four Major Cognitive Development Stages and Approximate Corresponding Ages

STAGE	AGE
1. Sensorimotor stage	birth-2 years
2. Preoperational stage	2-7 years
a. preconceptual stage	2-4 years
b. intuitive stage	4-7 years
3. Concrete operational stage	8-11 years
4. Formal operational stage	11-15 years

NOTE. Table based upon information in *The Psychology of Intelligence* (p. 123) by J. Piaget, 1963, Patterson, NJ: Littlefield Adams. Copyright 1963 by Littlefield Adams.

Sensorimotor Stages

Piaget did not discount the notion that learning may begin before birth; however, he chose to begin his study of the child at birth. He labeled the first stage of development the *sensorimotor* stage because the child seems unaware of any difference between his/her own body and the environment. All experiences seem restricted to these to which can be responded with one of the five senses. The child is intrigued with all objects encountered and attempts to interact with them through sensory exploration. Thus the very young child explores most objects by taking them to his/her mouth, probably because the earliest reflex action involves sucking with the mouth and grasping with the hand. Gradually, the other areas are put into play. Noises become important, particularly if the infant can discover a relationship between some behavior and the resulting noise. In general, the first two years of life are characterized by motoric responses to the environment.

Preoperational Stage

Toward the end of the child's second year, an ability to use symbols to represent various aspects of the environment is developed. The child no longer is restricted to the sensorimotor environment. The child of two years of age has an average vocabulary of 250 words.

Piaget divided this preoperational stage into two substages. A brief discussion of preconceptual and intuitive stages follow.

Preconceptual Stage. During this stage the child does not know that objects with similar characteristics are members of the same class but have unique identities. For example, a child at this stage may think only one Santa Claus exists even though he/she may have seen a dozen Santas in different shopping malls. Language is acquired quite rapidly during this stage. While the two-year old possesses an average vocabulary of 250 words, the four-year old has an average vocabulary of 4000 words.

Intuitive Stage. At about four years of age the child's thinking becomes more logical although reason does not yet dominate. This stage is called *intuitive* because it lacks operational characteristics. For example, a coin is shown to a child in one hand and both hands are placed behind one's back. The child will say the coin is in the hand where it was shown because the level of reasoning which says that the person showing the coin has the ability to switch the coin to the other hand has not developed.

Obstacles of Preoperational Stages

Phillips (1975) summarized obstacles to logical thought characteristic of the operational stage as follows: irreversibility, egocentrism, centering, states versus transformations, and transductive reasoning (pp. 59-67).

Irreversibility. Reversibility suggests that a thought can follow a line of reasoning back to where it originated. For example, a child is shown two rows of coins with 10 pennies in each row, but these rows are different lengths. The child will say that more coins are in the longer row. By the same token, a child shown two test tubes filled with liquids will say they are the same. However, when the liquid from one test tube is poured into a larger glass, the child will say the test tube has more liquid, primarily because the liquid is higher in the test tube. These are examples of the child's inability to reverse an operation. The child is unable to maintain the concept of the equal number of coins or the equal amount of liquid when faced with perceptual change.

Egocentrism. This term suggests that the preoperational child is unable to take another person's point of view. Because social order is built on the individual's ability to take into consideration the viewpoints of others (empathy or role taking), the communication of the preoperational child suffers. The child gradually becomes socialized near the age of six or seven when he/she is able to seek verification of thoughts by comparing them with the thoughts of others.

Centering. This concept suggests that the preoperational child is able to focus on only one aspect or detail of an event. In the example of the 10 pennies used earlier, the child was able only to focus on the concept of length and not on the concept of number. Also, with the test tube and liquid example, the child "centered" only on height in the container. If the child could avoid this centering, he/she could take both factors into account or shift from one factor to the other and thus correctly solve the problem.

States versus Transformations. The preoperational child is unable to perceive events in action sequences. Using the test tube example again, the preoperational child can watch the actual pouring of the liquid and still be unable to determine that the quantities were the same. This inability is the result of focusing only on the static event and not observing the process—the transformation—involved.

Transductive Reasoning. Instead of proceeding from the general to the specific (deductive reasoning) or from the specific to the general (inductive reasoning), the preoperational child proceeds from the specific to the specific (transductive reasoning). The child who is unaware that the succession of Santa Clauses seen in shopping malls are different persons, but instead thinks he is the same one is thinking transductively.

Concrete Operational Stage

During the concrete operational stage children begin to engage in logical reasoning, though still at a concrete level. Piaget used the term "concrete" because this stage includes concrete elements, operations, and rules. In other words, children at this stage are quite likely to interpret events in a literal manner.

Concrete operational children are capable of classifying objects or events into a hierarchy. This permits them to form a variety of class relationships as well as understand that some relationships are included in other classes; for example, A B and B C, therefore A C.

The child at this stage also can rank objects in order according to size, a behavior which Piaget called *serializing*. The principle of conservation also is developed during this stage. The concrete operational child confronted with the liquid from one test tube being poured into a glass is able to understand that identical amounts of water are included in both. Finally, the concrete operational child is capable of reversibility, the process of following a line of reasoning back to where it originated, i.e., 2 plus 3 equals 5 and 5 minus 2 equals 3.

Note that a child at this stage also becomes less egocentric and is capable of taking the point of view of another person. To take another person's point of view enables a child to develop a sense of cooperation. Children at this stage are quite interested in the rules of games they play. All of these developments prepare the child for the kind of thinking characteristic or the final period of intellectual development, formal operations.

Formal Operational Stage

This final stage of intellectual development continues for the remainder of a person's life. Piaget identified this stage as parallel with the period of adolescence. However, because this concept is a theory of intellectual development, limited intellectual ability and other cultural factors may slow the development of the operations characteristics of this stage.

The primary characteristic of this stage is development of ability to think in abstract terms. Adolescents at this stage are able to solve problems mentally. They are capable of both inductive and deductive reasoning. In other words, they can plan systematic investigations, routinely and accurately implement them, and draw logical conclusions from results. This process permits the adolescent to be creative, inventive, imaginative, and original in thinking.

Piaget's theory of intellectual development offers several useful principles for teaching. Teachers remain aware of the difficulty of tasks presented to students and remember that some tasks are too difficult for children at certain ages. Once a teacher is able to determine what a student knows, an appropriate level can be established for new learning. Finally, teachers can recognize individual differences between learners, even those within the same stage.

LAWRENCE KOHLBERG

Kohlberg (1975) studied Piaget's work on the theory of cognitive development which also included work on the development of moral judgment. Piaget's work formed a basis for research on moral development undertaken by Kohlberg. Like Piaget, Kohlberg saw moral development as progressing through a universal set of stages. Kohlberg (1975) stated that these stages are characterized by (1) organized systems of thought, (2) movement is always forward, and (3) thinking at a higher stage includes within it lower-stage thinking (p. 670). In Table 2.2 is outlined six stages of moral judgment. Kohlberg (1975) did not associate specific ages with each stage because individuals may be at different levels of moral thinking.

Kohlberg used stories on moral dilemmas to investigate the level of moral reasoning being used by a respondent. Perhaps the most familiar dilemma is one involving Heinz. This dilemma and subsequent questions asked about the dilemma are reported by Hersh, Paolitto, and Reimer (1979).

> In Europe, a woman is near death from a special kind of cancer. There is one drug that the doctors think might save her. It is a form of radium that a druggist in the same town has recently discovered. The drug is expensive to make, but the druggist is charging ten times what the drug cost him to make. He paid $200 for radium and is charging $2000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, goes to everyone he knows to borrow the money, but he can get together only about $1000, which is half of what it costs. He tells the druggist that his wife is dying and asks him to sell the drug cheaper or let him pay later. The druggist says, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." Heinz is desperate and considers breaking into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife.

1. Should Heinz steal the drug? Why or why not?
2. If Heinz doesn't love his wife, should he steal the drug for her?
3. Suppose the person is not his wife but a stranger. Should Heinz steal the drug for a stranger? Why or why not?
4. (If you favor stealing the drug for a stranger): Suppose it's a pet animal he loves. Should Heinz steal to save the pet animal? Why or why not?
5. Why should people do everything they can to save another's life anyhow?
6. It is against the law for Heinz to steal. Does that make it morally wrong? Why or why not?
7. Why should people generally do everything they can to avoid breaking the law, anyhow?

7a. How does this relate to Heinz's case? (pp. 54-55)

Teachers can write their own dilemmas or use actual real-life situations as a basis of helping children cope with delicate situations in their environments. The following dilemma (Locke & Hardaway, 1980) was written as an example to be used in a multicultural classroom to foster a discussion of race and racial relations.

Table 2.2
Kohlberg's Six Stages of Moral Judgment

	Content of Stage		
Level and Stage	**What Is Right**	**Reasons for Doing Right**	**Social Perspective of Stage**
Level I: Preconventional Stage 1: Heteronomous morality	Sticking to rules backed by punishment; obedience for its own sake; avoiding physical damage to persons and property.	Avoidance of punishment, superior power of authorities.	*Egocentric point of view.* Doesn't consider the interests of others or recognize that they differ from the actor's; doesn't relate two points of view. Actions considered physically rather than in terms of psychological interests of others. Confusion of authority's perspective with one's own.
Stage 2: Individualism, Instrumental purpose and Exchange—	Following rules only when in one's immediate interest; acting to meet one's own interests and needs and letting others do the same. Right is also what is fair or what is an equal exchange, deal, agreement.	To serve one's own needs or interests in a world where one has to recognize that other people also have interests.	*Concrete individualistic perspective.* Aware that everybody has interests to pursue and that these can conflict; right is relative (in the concrete individualistic sense).
Level II: Conventional Stage 3: Mutual interpersonal expectations; Relationships, and Interpersonal conformity	Living up to what is expected by people close to you or what people generally expect of a good son, brother, friend, etc. "Being good" is important and means having good motives, showing concern for others. It also means keeping mutual relationships such as trust, loyalty, respect, and gratitude.	The need to be a good person in your own eyes and these of others; caring for others; belief in the Golden Rule; desire to maintain rules and authority that support stereotypical good behavior.	*Perspective of the individual in relationships with other individuals.* Aware of shared feelings, agreements, and expectations which take primacy over individual interests. Relates points of view through the concrete Golden Rule, putting oneself in the other guy's shoes. Does not yet consider generalized system perspective.

Level and Stage	Content of Stage		
	What Is Right	**Reasons for Doing Right**	**Social Perspective of Stage**
Level II: *Conventional (continued)* Stage 4: Social system and conscience	Fulfilling duties to which you have agreed; laws to be upheld except in extreme cases where they conflict with other fixed social duties. Right is also contributing to the society, group, or institution.	To keep the institution going as a whole and avoid a breakdown in the system "if everyone did it"; imperative of conscience to meet one's defined obligations. (Easily confused with stage 3 belief in rules and authority.)	*Differentiates societal point of view from interpersonal agreement or motives.* Takes the point of view of the system that defines roles and rules, considers individual relations in terms of place in the system.
Level III: *Postconventional; or Principled* Stage 5: Social contract or utility and individual rights	Being aware that people hold a variety of values and opinions and that most of their values and rules are relative to their group. Relative rules usually upheld in the interest of impartiality and because they are the social contract. Some nonrelative values and rights (e.g., *life* and *liberty*) must be upheld in any society and regardless of majority opinion.	A sense of obligation to law because of one's social contract to make and abide by laws for the welfare of all and for the protection of all people's rights. A feeling of contractual commitment, freely entered upon, to family, friendship, trust, and work obligations. Concern that laws and duties be based on rational calculation of overal utility, "the greatest good for the greatest number."	*Prior to society perspective.* Rational individual aware of values and rights prior to social attachments and contracts. Integrates perspectives by formal mechanisms of agreement, contract, objective impartiality, and due process. Considers moral and legal points of view; recognizes that they sometimes conflict and finds it difficult to integrate them.
Level III: *Postconventional; or Principled (continued)* Stage 6: Universal ethical principles	Following self-chosen ethical principles. Particular laws or social agreements usually valid because they rest on such principles; when laws violate these principles, one acts in accordance with principle. Principles are universal principles of justice; equality of human rights and respect for the dignity of human beings as individuals.	The belief as a rational person in the validity of universal moral principles and a sense of personal commitment to them.	*Perspective of a moral point of view from which social arrangements derive.* Perspective is that of a rational individual recognizing the nature of morality or the fact that persons are ends in themselves and must be treated as such.

NOTE. From "Moral Stages and Moralization: The Cognitive Developmental Approach" by L. Kohlberg, 1976, *Moral Development and Behavior. Theory, Research, and Social Issues,* pp. 34-35. Copyright 1976 by Holt Rinehart, and Winston. Reprinted by permission.

> Beulah and Amy are two 12-year-olds who grew up together and were best of friends since childhood. Though Beulah was Black and Amy was white their racial difference has seemed unimportant in the past.
>
> However, Beulah's father was recently fired from his job at the local industry after having worked there for 22 years. He has filed charges of discrimination against the company for what he described as "racist" treatment. His firing has put the community in a turmoil with Blacks marching to protest of his firing and the local Ku Klux Klan marching to protect the community from violence. The local police were trying to maintain order in a community that had considered itself a model of racial cooperation. Most recently, the company was fire bombed and more violence was expected.
>
> Amy's parents insisted that Amy avoid any further contacts with Beulah because Amy's father was also an employee of the company and he did not wish to arouse suspicion.
>
> One night, Amy heard a knock at the door and when she opened it she found Beulah standing there crying and out of breath. Beulah told Amy that when she had returned home from playing with another friend, she had found her house in flames and surrounded by lots of people in sheets. Not knowing what to do, she ran to Amy's house.
>
> The following questions identify relevant dimensions of the dilemma and serve to stimulate discussions: What should Amy do? Should she turn Beulah away? Should she invite her inside? From Beulah's point of view, what should Amy do? From the point of view of Amy's parents, what should Amy do? Suppose they were only classmates and did not know each other well, would that make any difference? What would be Amy's responsibility if Beulah were white? What would be Amy's responsibility if Amy were black? What is the obligation of a friend to another? Should a friend risk scorn for the welfare of another? Should a friend risk life or limb for the welfare of another? Is the obligation of a friend altered if the friend is of a different race? What is Amy's responsibility in keeping her promise to her parents and being obedient? (pp. 279-280)

Kolhberg (1975) presented a consistent way of viewing moral development. His theory also offers teachers a chance to use his material in making determinations about what types of strategies may be appropriate for teaching children at the different stages of moral reasoning. Further, if educational programs can be developed which are geared to the different levels of development, teachers can foster moral growth by teaching students at the level immediately beyond their current level of functioning.

ERIK ERIKSON

Erikson (1963) has formulated a system of psychosocial development which focuses upon specific developmental tasks unique to each stage. Erikson (1963) was influenced by the work of Freud (1961), and Erikson's "ages of man" can be seen to parallel the psychosexual stages presented by Freud. However, Erikson (1963) has gone well beyond Freud's presentation to offer stages of development which correspond to a crisis of both positive and negative factors. Not only is Erikson's theory more optimistic than Freud's about man, it also seems more useful to teachers who wish to understand the development of students. In Table 2.3 is presented the developmental stages as viewed by Erikson (1963). Freud's stages are included only for comparison. Freud's theory and his psychosexual stages will not be discussed. Erikson's system provided a review of adult development whereas Freud's theory stopped at the end of adolescence.

The process of socialization can best be understood through a brief review of the distinctive features of each of Erikson's eight stages—trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, identity, intimacy, generativity, and ego integrating.

Basic Trust versus Basic Mistrust Stage

At birth an infant is dependent totally on other people for survival. The infant learns to "trust" these people to provide for needs of food, warmth, physical comfort, and human contact. An infant who is denied these basic needs begins to learn to "mistrust." Erikson (1963) characterized this stage as quite significant because it provides a foundation on which later tasks are built.

Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt Stage

The development of basic trust enables the child to begin development of both autonomy and self-control. During this stage the child learns to talk and walk, becoming less dependent on other people. Children during this stage also are expected to begin taking care of their bodily functions, i.e., toilet training. The positive aspect of this stage is

TABLE 2.3
Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

STAGE	DEVELOPMENTAL TASK	AGE	FREUD'S STAGE
I	Basic Trust vs. Basic Mistrust	0-1	Oral
II	Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt	1-4	Anal
III	Initiative vs. Guilt	4-6	Phallic
IV	Industry vs. Guilt	6-12	Latency
V	Identify vs. Role Confusion	12-20	Genital
VI	Intimacy vs. Isolation	20-30	
VII	Generativity vs. Stagnation	30-65	
VIII	Ego Integrity vs. Despair	65—	

NOTE. Table based upon information in *Childhood and Society* (pp. 247-269) by E. H. Erikson, 1963, New York: W. W. Norton. Copyright 1963 by W. W. Norton, and

The Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud (pp. 56-121) by S. Freud, 1961, London: Hogarth Press. Copyright 1961 by Hogarth Press.

seen in the child who is given appropriate responsibility and freedom to do for self. Overprotection of children will often lead them to doubt their abilities and to have a feeling of helplessness. Subsequently children feel ashamed when unable to perform a task expected of them.

Initiative versus Guilt Stage

This stage often is characterized by imagination and pretense. The child is extending his/her level of independence and this independence opens up a whole new world for exploration. The child begins to spend more time away from parents and more time with playmates. Children become quite inquisitive and curious. The initiativeness stressed in this stage is fostered by allowing children the opportunity to complete many tasks on their own. Guilt is the result of overcontrol and restriction of behavior.

Industry versus Inferiority Stage

The child is probably in school by the beginning of this stage and begins learning skills necessary for survival: reading, writing, and problem solving. The "industry" of this stage is learning how things are made and how they work. The child learns some skills necessary for survival and equally important learns to feel competent in interpersonal relations. The inferiority of this stage is the result of failure to accomplish the tasks expected. Children whose parents expect too much, who are unable to compete successfully with their peers, or who discover that factors such as race, sex, or socioeconomic factors determine success, are likely to develop feelings of inferiority.

Identity versus Role Confusion Stage

The period of adolescence is the transition between childhood and adulthood. During this stage the individual is confronted with major developments which are necessary for successful movement into adulthood. Primarily, the individual must develop an identity, that is an integration of all of his/her roles and self-images into a unique person who is socially and emotionally capable of assuming responsibilities of adulthood. Role confusion exists when an individual is unable to develop this unique identity but remains confused and uncertain about who he/she is. This confusion often manifests itself in the individual's inability to pursue further education beyond high school or failure to select a career.

Intimacy versus Isolation Stage

Love and work are the major activities of the early adult years. Traditionally, the individual "settles down" to a career and develops sexual intimacy with another person. In other words, the individual is capable of merging his/her identity with the identity of another person. This intimacy extends not only to marriage but also to friends, family, and other persons. The inability to enter into rewarding interpersonal relations results in isolation.

Generativity versus Stagnation Stage

Generativity involves a person's needs to guide those who will replace this generation. For most people, this need is satisfied through the rearing of offspring. Others satisfy this need through being creative and/or being productive. For example, some people write books which are dedicated to their children. The person who does not develop a sense of contribution is likely to develop a sense of uselessness and apathy, what Erikson (1963) termed stagnation.

Ego Integrity versus Despair Stage

Erikson's (1963) eighth stage of life is characterized by the need to place trust in others to maintain the future. The individual is able to review his/her life with a feeling of satisfaction and know that his/her existence will continue either through his/her offspring or contributions to society. Despair is characteristic of the individual who has feelings of failure and realizes that it is too late to do anything about the last dream.

Erikson (1963) provided the educator with a lifelong view of man and the important qualities to be developed at each stage of growth. Teachers can use this theory to assess the developmental needs of specific children and provide academic and social experiences consistent with these needs.

An understanding of the theory presented by Erikson (1963) helps the teacher understand that human beings develop according to a predetermined psychosocial plan. The progression through the eight stages is based on a number of factors in the social environment. Because each stage represents a different level of functioning, the classroom environment should be designed to foster the smooth positive movement from one stage to another.

Successful accomplishment of tasks at each stage should lead to relative happiness—both intrapersonal and interpersonal. The skillful teacher will recognize tasks at each stage and will develop experiences which will facilitate smooth movement through the stages. Such facilitation can be accomplished by organizing school activities which permit and encourage students to gain a variety of new experiences.

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

In *Developmental Tasks and Education,* Robert J. Havighurst (1972) has delineated the specific developmental tasks unique to specific age levels. He defined a developmental task as "midway between an individual need and a societal demand which assumes an active learner interacting with an active social environment" (p. iv). Thus a developmental task includes knowledge, skills, attitudes, and functions the individual must acquire at various stages through personal effort, social expectations, and physical maturity. Havighurst (1972) outlined the major developmental tasks significant at each of six age periods. Each stage is characterized by specific needs for affection, approval, independence, and self-competence. At the early childhood level (ages 5-9) one of the major tasks is to learn to accept rules and procedures while understanding the rights of others. In middle childhood (ages 10-11), major tasks include learning to get along with age mates and accepting group codes of behavior while learning to compete within the code. The adolescent period (ages 12-20) includes the tasks of gaining emotional independence, acquiring sex roles, and finding a vocational direction.

Havighurst (1972) argued that a teachable moment, an ideal time for teaching a new task, exists. Each developmental task is built upon a prior developmental stage. Teachers need to recognize that this process of learning is based on social, physical, and personal factors. In his book, Havighurst identified specific educational implications at each developmental stage. The value of his contribution to understanding development is significant when viewed in perspective of other theories presented previously.

The school, as a major social institution responsible for meeting a major part of needs of youngsters, must evaluate its total program for relevance to tasks of each age level. The school staff must recognize the need for unique experiences appropriate for each stage.

A first step is to evaluate how effectively the school program is presently meeting these needs. From this assessment, changes can be made to correct perceived inadequacies. While this effort focuses on the general age category, teachers must know where each student ranks in his/her achievement of developmental tasks. Where a student is found to be below expected developmental level, the teacher can discuss the child's needs with the parents, other teachers, and school support personnel.

Where deemed necessary, resources outside the school system may be considered for support. From this consultation, appropriate strategies may be developed to assist the student where needed. Much of the remainder of this book will focus on teacher activities which attempt to correct some developmental task difficulty.

APPLICATION OF THEORY

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the reader to four formal theories important to the total education process. The theories were presented so that the teacher might further use the theories as a foundation in the classroom. By understanding several theories the reader should be able to check views held about students in general, and about specific students in particular. Such knowledge should be useful as one works with students with a variety of needs. The following points should be recalled as one develops lessons.

1. Select objectives and goals for each lesson keeping in mind the developmental needs of all students. Knowledge about the developmental levels of students should be useful in implementing strategies to carry out objectives. *Both content and process should be considered as objectives are being established.*

2. Select classroom materials, content, which are appropriate and suitable to the unique developmental needs of all students. This necessitates the inclusion of varied materials because developmental levels in each classroom will be different. Learning tasks should be analyzed in terms of the developmental components involved. Lessons should build on previous learning experiences. Diversity in teaching materials and resources should take into consideration the mode by which students learn best. Learners vary in their modes among the following types: visual, auditory, or tactical (manipulative).

3. Knowledge of various theories of development help teachers determine the "readiness" of each student for attempts at new tasks. It is important to avoid tasks which are far beyond the developmental level of a student. Obviously students must be presented with challenges and they should be appropriate to levels attainable by the students.

4. Determine appropriate levels of "telling" students things versus allowing them to "discover" things themselves (process). For example, lecturing, an abstract method of instruction, may prove frustrating to concrete learners. As a general rule, verbal abstractions should follow some concrete (direct) experience.

5. Knowledge of developmental theories provide a foundation for teachers who wish to use group situations or peer instruction in their classrooms. Different developmental levels require teachers to make different methodical decisions in order to maximize teaching effectiveness.

6. Teachers focus on the total person in the learning environment. Such a focus would include attention to sensory-motor, linguistic, cognitive, and moral development.

7. Finally, it is important to remember the principle of individual differences. Chronological age and developmental levels are not consistent. Each student learns in his/her own way at his/her own rate and in his/her own time.

SUMMARY

A teacher should know many things about children in general and many things about his/her own students in particular. This review of four theories of development provides a brief survey of some fundamental notions about child development and individual differences. A successful teacher enters into the classroom informed about human nature.

This knowledge base serves as a foundation for providing specific unique learning experiences for each student. The knowledge base also serves to help the teacher avoid mistakes. The teacher seeks to learn about individual traits, physical limitations, habits, and so forth, so that subject matter may be adapted and methods varied to lead the student toward the desired learning. An understanding of the works of Piaget, Kohlberg, Erikson, and Havighurst can serve in meeting these desired goals.

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CHAPTER 3

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHERS

Personal relationships between teacher and student are the core of the learning process. Learning is facilitated by an environment in which students are encouraged to believe that their contributions and value as individuals are appreciated and respected. The effective teacher encourages self-disclosure and recognizes ambiguity as an avenue for exploring alternatives. The learning environment is enhanced by the teacher's acceptance of confrontation and differences of opinions as potentially constructive forces. Through the use of effective communication skills, the teacher can create an environment conducive to academic achievement.

In the past, educators have often expressed the opinion that "Humaneness and promotion of cognitive growth are antithetical" (Aspy & Roebuck, 1972, p. 365). However, the use of effective communication intensifies humane aspects of the teaching/learning spectrum and concurrently facilitates cognitive growth.

FACILITATIVE CONDITIONS

More than two decades ago Rogers (1961) reasoned that three skills provided conditions within the interpersonal process (empathy, genuineness, and unconditional positive regard) and that these skills were related directly to learning outcomes.

> To the extent that the teacher creates such a relationship with his class, the student will become a self-initiated learner, more original, more self-disciplined, less anxious and other directed. (p. 37)

This statement focuses attention on the fact that education is a process and all factors which have bearing on that process ought to be considered.

The purpose of this chapter is to study facilitative conditions, germane to the counseling profession, which will enhance the process of learning. Techniques to accomplish these facilitative conditions also will be examined.

Empathy

Empathy often is viewed both as an attitude and as a technique in interpersonal relations. Rogers (1962) defined empathy as

> understanding the [student's] private world, and able to communicate some of the significant fragments of that understanding. To sense the [student's] inner world of private, personal meanings as if they were your own, but without ever losing the "as if" quality. To sense his confusion or his timidity as his anger or his feeling of being treated unfairly as if it were your own. (p. 419)

This understanding of the student implies much more than simply having knowledge of what the student is feeling. It means understanding the feelings of the student as a basis for implementing some change in the relationship. When the world of the student becomes clear to the teacher, and the student senses this understanding, the student is likely to allow the teacher to enter more of his/her world of experience. The teacher may be able to aid the student in exploring feelings of which he/she may not yet be aware. This type of relationship serves as a basis for the student to learn, to change, and to develop.

Rogers (1969) illustrated how teacher empathy works when a student believes that he/she really is understood.

> This attitude of standing in the other's shoes, of viewing the world through the student's eyes, is almost unheard of in the classroom. One could listen to thousands of ordinary classroom interactions without coming across one instance of clearly communicated, sensitively accurate, empathic understanding. But it has a tremendously releasing effect when it occurs. (p. 112)

To illustrate his point, Rogers went on to describe a classroom situation which he borrowed from Virginia Axline.

> *A seven year old boy had been classified as a slow learner, difficult to manage, acting out, and one who used profanity. Eventually, the boy received a paddling by the school principal for his use of profanity. In a play session with the therapist, the boy constructed a clay model of a man who closely resembled the school principal. When the therapist inquired as to whom the boy had built, he replied that he did not know. When the therapist told the boy that the model resembled the principal, the boy agreed and began tearing the head off, an experience which seemed to produce satisfaction. The therapist responded empathically by saying "Sometimes you get so mad at him you feel like tearing his head off, don't you?" At which point the boy tore off the arms and then beat the model to a pulp. The therapist allowed the boy to do this and when it appeared that he had finished, she said to him, "You must feel much better now." The boy smiled and began to rebuild the model.*

This example demonstrates that the therapist really understood the feelings of the boy. The therapist demonstrated this understanding without being judgmental or evaluative. She may not have liked what she saw or may not have approved of the behavior, yet she demonstrated that she fully understood the boy's feelings and she verbalized the understanding in an empathic way.

One word of caution. A teacher should not pretend to understand the student when he/she does not. An inauthentic expression of empathy is likely to confuse the student and produce distrust of the teacher.

Genuineness

Genuineness means that the teacher is "real" in the relationship with students. This means that the teacher is basically being him/herself, not in a role being played in a particular situation, but in all interactions. The teacher does not present a facade, does not deny self, and is able to communicate this self-awareness to those around.

An example of realness was reported by Rogers (1969) when he described the behavior of a sixth grade art teacher.

> *This teacher gave students a great deal of liberty in her classroom and in the process of doing so shared her realness with them. She not only shared her feelings of happiness and pleasure but also her feelings of anger and disappointment as well. Because she gave these students freedom in the classroom it meant that students could select art supplies on their own. The result was that the room was frequently messy. The teacher confronted the students with her real feelings of wanting to allow them freedom and wanting to have the room neat and orderly. She first asked if they had a solution. Their recommended solution was to allow those who volunteered to clean the room. She explained that the solution seemed unfair but she would accept it. She had shared her realness in a manner which allowed the students to understand the importance of the issue. She had expressed directly what she was experiencing and the message was communicated with the motivation clear. There was also an element of the "here-and-now" included in the message.*

The classroom is an excellent setting for students to learn labels for their emotions and how to express emotions appropriately. Being genuine in communicating with students, the teacher provides a model from which students can learn an honest means of expressing anger, anxiety, hostility, and fear as well as the more pleasant emotions.

Unconditional Positive Regard

The third condition, unconditional positive regard, exists when the teacher accepts the student totally and without conditions, judgment, or evaluation. Unconditional positive regard involves an affirming response to the student as a person of worth without regard to the student's behavior or other characteristics which may be unacceptable or unlikeable. The teacher accomplishes this unconditional positive regard by actively listening and by showing nonpossessive warmth through sincerity and caring. The teacher accepts the student's imperfections in the context that faults are a part of the student's individual human condition.

Rogers (1977) stated that the feeling that one has been given unconditional positive regard facilitates the development of feelings, reason, emotions, and intellect. Role expectations tend to be diminished and replaced by the student choosing his/her own way of behaving. When students are trusted to make responsible decisions, they begin to change their world.

Some people may overreact to unconditional positive regard as accepting of all that the student does. While the emphasis is on the positive aspects of interpersonal relationships between teachers and students, it is important to point out that unconditional positive regard does not include acceptance of "inappropriate" behaviors. The teacher first convinces the student of the unconditional prizing and then shares with the student dislike of the behavior. Students logically will act quite differently in interactions with teachers believed to care genuinely about them and accept them without evaluation. Quite simply, this unconditional positive regard involves separating the person from acts of that person. Indeed this seems to represent the optimal level toward which the teacher should strive.

Some examples of good teacher comments which communicate empathy, genuineness, and unconditional caring are presented.

1. I am angry when I find the classroom messy.

2. I am concerned that you have been late to class three times this week. I am distracted when you enter late.

3. I am pleased that you requested my assistance with your problem. You've become frustrated looking for an answer, haven't you?

4. Do you have a suggestion for how we can resolve our difference so we will both feel good about the decision?

The same statements can be made negative as illustrated in the following examples:

1. You kids make me so mad with such a messy room.
2. How do you expect me to be able to teach with you coming in to class late. You have been late three times already this week.
3. I don't like to get involved in the personal problems of students. I'm sure time will solve your problem.
4. This is my classroom and I make the rules here. Your role is to obey the rules.

FACILITATIVE TECHNIQUES

Basic techniques used to convey the three conditions discussed previously will be presented. The purpose is to help teachers become familiar with techniques which seem useful in classes or in out-of-class interactions involving students.

Listening

Listening skills often are divided into two categories: active listening and analytical listening. *Active listening* involves communicating to the student that the teacher is interested in understanding what is being said and that the student is cared for as a person. This listening requires that the receiver of the message maintain an "active" role in the communication process. Some simple techniques are helpful in communicating this active role in the process. Mehrabian (1971) has suggested active listening can be demonstrated by maintaining good eye contact, facing the student squarely, and by listening without interrupting. Other behaviors such as nodding the head, maintaining a close distance to the student, leaning toward the student (if seated), and pausing following a student's statement, all tend to communicate an interest in what the student is saying.

Gordon (1974) has identified seven attitudes necessary for accurate active listening. These attitudes are listed as follows:

1. The foundation of the attitude system is trust in the student's ability to resolve any difficulties they face. Active listening encourages students to seek solutions themselves. Teachers need only remember that such process will take time, much more than if the teacher provided the solution.

2. The use of unconditional positive regard exemplifies the teachers' willingness to accept all feelings expressed by students. The statement "you shouldn't feel that way" is not representative of the teacher who genuinely accepts all feelings.

3. Teachers must remember that feelings are extremely changeable. Most feelings occur as a monetary state. Active listening is the connecting link between these monetary states.

4. There must be a genuine desire on the part of the teacher to help students with their problems. Sometimes teachers feel that too much has already been included in job descriptions to allow additional time to help. The reality is that teachers already handle difficult situations. Active listening is a means of helping by using alternative strategies.

5. Accurate empathy involves being "with" each student and yet, at the same time, maintaining one's own identity. This implies that a fine line exists between optional involvement with a student and too much involvement with a student. Too much involvement tends to communicate a lack of faith in the students' ability to solve his/her own problem.

6. Teachers must understand that the first problem presented is usually not the real problem. Through active listening the teacher is able to encourage the student to explore additional areas of possible concern.

7. Students must believe that what they say to teachers will be treated confidentially. Unless a student so desires, private conversations must remain as such and not be shared with other school personnel. Where necessary, have the student

share the information with other school personnel. In some instances it is appropriate for a teacher to share information at the request of the student.

In summary, active listening communicates a trust in the student, a belief in the student's ability to solve problems, responsibility rests with the student to solve problems, and a commitment from teachers to be involved in close meaningful relationships with students.

Analytical listening involves assessing ideas presented in a message and making choices, decisions, or judgments about that message. Clearly, analytical listening relates to much of the cognitive discussion that takes place in the classroom. More important is the way in which teachers respond to ideas presented by students. Teachers need to communicate to students that their ideas are valid, important, and relevant to a discussion. This process involves giving the student feedback on the message sent. Effective feedback is characterized according to Barker (1971) by (1) response to the student, (2) responding at an appropriate level and context, (3) clarifying the meaning in the feedback, and (4) making sure that the feedback is received and understood.

Silence also sometimes is treated as a form of listening. The student is uninterrupted and nonverbal active listening behaviors are exhibited. For many students this opportunity to "think aloud" without interruption is appreciated and may serve to help think through a situation. The timing of a teacher's silence is extremely significant. Silence may be used to allow the student time to think about (process) what has been said or to reduce the intensity of the conversation. The latter use allows the student an opportunity to focus the conversation and accept responsibility for what is being said.

Reflection

Reflection means simply to mirror what the student has said which is an attempt to restate and thus clarify essential attitudes expressed by the student. Reflection can be of two types: reflection of *content* or reflection of *feeling*. The former is a mirroring of what the student has spoken, whereas the latter mirrors the implied underlying feeling.

The teacher must be sensitive to feelings of students and must be capable of clarifying, simplifying, and mirroring them back to the students as expressed. The expression of feelings is encouraged openly by the teacher's reflection and this encourages self-confrontation—the result being that the student more fully understands his/her own ideas, experiences, and thought processes which underlie and influence feelings and actions. Note the emphasis on reflection as the paraphrasing of subjective attitudes not the objective content of statements. The technique also may take the form of interpreting nonverbal behavior (i.e., voice tone, gestures, and mannerisms) and reflecting the teacher's own perceptions of the influence this behavior may have upon statements made by students.

Reflection of content involves acting as a mirror by restating what the student has said. For example:

> Student: *I don't want to stand up in front of the class and give an oral report.*
>
> Teacher: *You don't want to give an oral report in front of the class.*

As can be seen from the example, the teacher responds to the content of what the student said. The teacher who desires to respond to the underlying feeling might say to the same student statement:

> Teacher: *Perhaps you are afraid that you will not do well in front of your friends.*

The attempt, in reflection, basically, is to confront an apparent contradiction of what the student is saying with what the teacher sees the student expressing. Any reflection, however, requires that the teacher choose from verbalizations and actions of students those elements which have the greatest quality of feeling and are in the greatest need of clarification. Damage could be done by failing to reflect accurately or by reflecting accurately and then not working through the feelings properly (Brammer & Shostrum, 1977).

Gendlin (1974) stated that too often inaccuracies occur in reflection which obscure rather than clarify. The student then tries to deal with the teacher's inaccurate response, and the teacher, not realizing the first inaccuracy, reflects the student's comeback. The result is that both people are so far from the original feeling of the student that they never return. The teacher must be very aware of the task of accuracy. Without the ability "to listen, to hear, to respond exactly, to help the person share

TABLE 3.1
The Vocabulary of Feelings

Levels of Intensity	Happy	Caring	Depressed	Inadequate
Strong	thrilled on cloud nine ecstatic overjoyed excited elated sensational exhilarated fantastic terrific on top of the world turned on euphoric enthusiastic delighted marvelous great	tenderness toward affection for captivated by attached to devoted to adoration loving infatuated enamored cherish idolize worship	desolate dejected hopeless alienated depressed gloomy dismal bleak in despair empty barren grieved grief despair grim	worthless good for nothing washed up powerless helpless impotent crippled inferior emasculated useless finished like a failure
Moderate	cheerful light-hearted happy serene wonderful up aglow glowing in high spirits jovial riding high elevated neat	caring fond of regard respectful admiration concern for hold dear prize taken with turned on trust close	distressed upset downcast sorrowful demoralized discouraged miserable pessimistic tearful weepy rotten awful horrible terrible blue lost melancholy	inadequate whipped defeated incompetent inept overwhelmed ineffective lacking deficient unable incapable small insignificant like Casper Milquetoast unfit unimportant incomplete no good immobilized
Mild	glad good contented satisfied gratified pleasant pleased fine	warm toward friendly like positive toward	unhappy down low bad blah disappointed sad glum	lacking confidence unsure of yourself uncertain weak inefficient

NOTE. From *Improving Therapeutic Communication* (pp. 86-87) by D. C. Hammond, D. H. Hepworth, and V. G. Smith, 1977. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Copyright 1977 by Jossey-Bass. Reprinted by permission.

TABLE 3.1 Continued.

Fearful	Confused	Hurt	Angry	Lonely	Guilt-Shame
terrified	bewildered	crushed	furious	isolated	sick at heart
frightened	puzzled	destroyed	enraged	abandoned	unforgivable
intimidated	baffled	ruined	seething	all alone	humiliated
horrified	perplexed	degraded	outraged	forsaken	disgraced
desperate	trapped	pain(ed)	infuriated	cut off	degraded
panicky	confounded	wounded	burned up		horrible
terror-stricken	in a dilemma	devastated	pissed off		mortified
stage fright	befuddled	tortured	fighting mad		exposed
dread	in a quandry	disgraced	nauseated		
vulnerable	full of questions	humiliated	violent		
paralyzed	confused	anguished	indignant		
		at the mercy of	hatred		
		cast off	bitter		
		forsaken	galled		
		rejected	vengeful		
		discarded	hateful		
			vicious		
afraid	mixed-up	hurt	resentful	lonely	ashamed
scared	disorganized	belittled	irritated	alienated	guilty
fearful	foggy	shot down	hostile	estranged	remorseful
apprehensive	troubled	overlooked	annoyed	remote	crummy
jumpy	adrift	abused	upset with	alone	to blame
shaky	lost	depreciated	agitated	apart from others	lost face
threatened	at loose ends	criticized	mad	insulated from others	demeaned
distrustful	going aroun in circles	defamed	aggravated		
risky	disconcerted	censured	offended		
alarmed	frustrated	discredited	antagonistic		
butterflies	flustered	disparaged	exasperated		
awkward	in a bind	laughed at	belligerent		
defensive	ambivalent	maligned	mean		
	disturbed	mistreated	vexed		
	helpless	ridiculed	spiteful		
	embroiled	devalued	vindictive		
		scorned			
		mocked			
		scoffed at			
		used			
		exploited			
		debased			
		slammed			
		slandered			
		impugned			
		cheapened			
nervous	uncertain	put down	uptight	left out	regretful
anxious	unsure	neglected	disgusted	excluded	wrong
unsure	bothered	overlooked	bugged	lonesome	embarrassed
hesitant	uncomfortable	minimized	turned off	distant	at fault
timid	undecided	let down	put out	aloof	in error
shy		unappreciated	miffed		responsible for
worried		taken for granted	irked		blew it
uneasy			perturbed		goofed
bashful			ticked off		lament
embarrased			teed off		
ill at ease			chagrined		
doubtful			cross		
jittery			dismayed		
on edge			impatient		
uncomfortable					
self-conscious					

what is felt, the ...[teacher] is actually leaving the ... [student] basically alone ...Without making real touch with what there is in another, one cannot relate to that other" (p. 217).

Furthermore, the teacher must avoid what Porter (1950) has identified as four pitfalls of reflection:

1. reflecting content, or blind repetition of the statement of the client, without any attempt at introspection

2. lack of depth, or unappropriate level of response

3. altering of meaning, or inaccurate restatement of the client's words

4. inappropriate language, or rephrasing in lofty or overly-simplified terms

In Table 3.1, taken from Hammond, Hepworth, and Smith (1977), is provided a vocabulary of feelings which may be encountered by teachers. The suggestion, as a first step in responding to feelings, is for teachers to develop an awareness of feeling words as well as awareness of feeling intensity. Once this awareness has been developed, teachers can develop the ability to communicate to the student this awareness of exact feelings perceived. Such skill requires a broad vocabulary of words and expressions.

Hammond, Hepworth, and Smith (1977) also suggested some empathic response leads or introductory phrases (Table 3.2) which should be helpful as one learns skills in reflection of both content and feelings. They called their list one of "empathically communicative lead-in phrases" designed to help teachers respond more naturally.

Other Techniques

Many additional techniques from the counseling profession prove helpful to the teacher. Among these techniques are clarification, questioning, interpretation, modeling, positive reinforcement, and gestalt language.

TABLE 3.2
Empathic Response Leads

Kind of feeling...
Sort of saying...
As I get it, you felt that...
I'm picking up that you...
If I'm hearing you correctly...
To me it's almost like you are saying, "I..."
Sort of hear you saying that maybe you...
Kind of made (makes) you feel...
What I hear you saying is...
So, as you see it...
As I get it, you're saying...
What I guess I'm hearing is...
I'm not sure I'm with you, but...
I somehow sense that maybe you feel...
You feel...
I really hear you saying that...
I wonder if you're expressing a concern that...
It sounds as if you're indicating you...
I wonder if you're saying...
You place a high value on...
It seems to you...
Like right now...
You often feel...
You feel, perhaps...
You appear to be feeling...
It appears to you...
As I hear it, you...
So, from where you sit...
Your feeling now is that...
I read you as...
Sometimes you...
You must have felt...
I sense that you're feeling...
Very much feeling...
Your message seems to be, "I..."
You appear...
Listening to you it seems as if...
I gather...
So your world is a place where you...
You communicate (convey) a sense of...

NOTE. From *Improving Therapeutic Communication* (pp. 114-115) by D. C. Hammond, D. H. Hepworth, and V. G. Smith, 1977, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Copyright 1977 by Jossey-Bass. Reprinted by permission.

Clarification. Clarification seeks to checkout or verify the meaning of a student's statement. When the teacher fails to understand accurately either content or feeling inherent in a student's statement, seeking clarification to avoid misperceptions is necessary. An example of clarification follows:

> Student: *You never call on me when I raise my hand.*
>
> Teacher: *You think that I deliberately ignore you?*

Questioning. Questioning is a technique which allows the teacher to obtain additional information necessary to understand fully the meaning intended by the student. Questioning also serves to help the student focus on significant areas of concern as perceived by the teacher. This involves asking who, what, when, and how questions of the student. A good rule of thumb for encouraging verbalization is to avoid questions which the student can answer with a simple "yes" or "no." Furthermore, the questioning should not be of such a nature as might be perceived as prying or interrogating. A tendency for "why" questions to lead into intellectualization and excuse giving exists and, therefore, often should be avoided. A "why" question usually can be phrased as a "what" or "how" question.

Interpretation. Interpretation is a technique which serves to help the student understand the underlying motivation behind some statement. Ideally, the student, assumed to be capable of understanding motivations behind statements, should be encouraged to interpret his/her own statements. This process not only relieves the teacher of the responsibility, but helps the student learn how to deal with feelings at a later time. Furthermore, by encouraging the student to seek self-meaning, the teacher is communicating a trust or faith in the student's ability to assume major responsibility in the process of problem solving. The following example illustrates the technique of interpretation.

> Student: *If only I could get a part-time job, my problems would be over.*
>
> Teacher: *But you feel you'd miss out on participating in extracurricular activities which also are important to you.*

Modeling. Modeling is mentioned as a technique because it has long been recognized by sociologists and anthropologists as important in shaping learned behaviors. To use the technique most effectively, the teacher should first determine the precise behavior to be modeled. Then follows a tailoring of a specific modeling experience for the student. Peer modeling is useful because students seem to identify readily with the model. This technique has utility with career planning, speech training, and teaching students acceptable behaviors.

Reinforcement Techniques. Reinforcement techniques are used often in connection with other techniques. Positive reinforcement seems to be useful in instilling useful habits in students. Generally, the technique is aimed at developing a new behavior, or changing an existing problem behavior. The reinforcement may take the form of verbal reinforcement where the teacher reinforces the student with positive statements when a desired behavior is exhibited.

Gestalt Language. Gestalt language techniques are useful in promoting self-awareness of many students. The teacher works to help the student achieve awareness by putting him/her in touch with what is being said and the possible meanings of these statements. Passons (1975) described what a teacher might say to a student about voice to enhance awareness. The teacher might say the following:

> Listen to yourself in a conversation. Do you usually listen to what you say as you are talking? What do you hear? Listen to the range of your vocabulary. When was the last time you learned and used some new words to express yourself? Do you tend to speak slowly or rapidly? Listen to the volume of your voice . . . From the viewpoint of others would you say your voice is settling? Unnerving? What do you feel are the most distinguishing qualities of your voice? (p. 58)

Other gestalt language techniques involve personalizing pronouns (changing the impersonal referent pronouns of "it," "you," and "we" to the self-referent pronoun "I"), changing questions to statements, using body expressions, and sharing hunches.

These skills are basic to good interpersonal relations, and thus they are basic to good teaching. Regardless of the level of knowledge a teacher possesses, the effect of the interpersonal relationship will determine how much of that knowledge will be learned by students.

SUMMARY

The development of skills in effective communication is necessary for good interaction with students and should lead to a better general classroom environment. A saying that "children are people, too" should serve as a basis for teacher-student interactions. Empathy, genuineness, and unconditional positive regard help communicate to students that they are accepted as persons. Teachers must, communicate not only an interest in their students' academic achievement but in personal-social development as well. To do this teachers must be available and willing to interact with students in discussing matters important to them. The effective teacher listens to students, respects students, and genuinely cares about them. He/she is nondefensive and honest in helping students explore their thoughts and feelings. This is not an easy role to fulfill, yet it is so critical to the total development of students. Using and teaching students to use effective facilitative techniques will assist the teacher in fulfilling the role.

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CHAPTER 4

UTILIZING TEST INFORMATION

What is a standardized test? What is the role of the teacher in the testing process? What is the meaning of testing terms such as norm-referenced, reliability, and test battery? These are some questions presented in this chapter.

Teachers should be somewhat familiar with standardized tests. Most teachers have been exposed to these tests since they were students in elementary, middle, and high school. For example, prior to placement in kindergarten or first grade, many students are administered a reading readiness test to determine developmental skills needed to learn to read.

As students progress from elementary to high school, teachers may have administered standardized achievement tests. During the first, third, fifth, and eighth grades, students may take an achievement test battery to determine what was learned in reading, language, and math. In high school, some teachers may administer an end-of-year standardized achievement test. In addition, prior to being admitted to college, students take either the *Scholastic Achievement Test* (SAT) or *American College Test* (ACT).

Exposure to standardized tests does not end when one graduates from high school. Some college students may take standardized tests at the end of some courses. Some teachers are required to take a standardized test such as the *National Teachers Examination* prior to becoming certified to teach.

The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to survey some of the basic concepts applicable to standardized tests. Because teachers are involved in the school's testing program, it is important to understand key testing terms and be able to identify different kinds of standardized tests. For those desiring a more thorough understanding, sections on sources of additional information and selected references on standardized tests are included.

A discussion is presented of some recent trends and issues in standardized testing. Today, many states have mandated some form of statewide testing. Therefore, this competency testing movement as it applies to students and teachers is discussed. The truth-in-testing laws also will be included.

This chapter does not include sections on the selection of standardized tests nor the construction of teacher-made tests. These topics are omitted because most generally standardized tests used by schools have been pre-selected either by a testing committee, school boad, testing director, administrator, or counselor. Also, teachers have been trained in the development of classroom tests during their teacher preparation classes.

TESTING TERMS

Standardized and Nonstandardized

A *standardized test* may be an intelligence test, an achievment test, an aptitude test, an interest test, or a personality test. These tests are prepared by experts in the field of test construction.

The test items on a standardized test are carefully planned and prepared. Once the test is prepared, it is field tested on a population of students who are similar in age, sex, grade, locality, economic status, and curriculum to the students who will be tested. Based on results of the field test, an analysis is made. Those items which proved to be too difficult, easy, or ambiguous are rewritten or eliminated.

Prior to publication, standardized tests are normed. This means that an individual's test results are compared to a selected reference group. Standardized tests may be norm-referenced or criterion-referenced. A description of norm and criterion referencing is included in a separate section.

Standardized tests are administered under standardized conditions. Students taking the test in Ohio, California, New York, or Texas will follow standard directions and time limits. Information about administering these tests is found in the manual.

Teachers who will be administering a standardized test must obtain and read the manual. Test manuals contain the directions for administering the test. The directions, which are read to the students, are usually printed in boldfaced type. Test manuals also include directions for scoring the test as well as time limits for each section. A section in this chapter on sources of test information will describe test manuals further.

Results of standardized tests are given using standard scores. Standard scores may be expressed as percentiles, stanines, or grade equivalents. A description of these terms and how they are used in the interpretation of scores is included in Chapter 14.

Nonstandardized tests, as used in this book, refer to classroom tests. These tests are usually developed by the teacher and are used to assess the amount of material that was learned in the classroom. The conditions described under standardized tests usually do not apply to classroom tests. Classroom tests assess the achievement attained by the student over a given period of time. Teachers may develop and administer a test at the conclusion of a chapter or unit. For example, a teacher may administer a spelling test which contains 20 words covered during a given period of time. A student who correctly spells 18 of 20 words obtained a score of 90%.

Pencil-and-Paper-Tests or Performance Tests

A *pencil-and-paper-test* requires the examinee to respond to a test item by either writing the answer immediately after the question or using a separate answer sheet. Most standardized tests are of the pencil-and-paper variety.

Unlike pencil-and-paper-tests, *performance tests* require the examinee to perform some sort of task. For example, on an individual intelligence test, a student may be required to solve a maze or to complete a design using blocks. Additionally, performance tests are used on the *General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB)* to test motor coordination, manual dexterity, and finger dexterity. Classroom tests also may be of the performance type. For example, in a wood working class, a student may be evaluated using the final product such as the completion of a lamp or in a typing class, a student may be evaluated on the number of words accurately typed.

Verbal and Nonverbal Tests

Most of the standardized tests available today are verbal. A *verbal test* uses words in the test item. Students may be required to read the directions or to read the question and to indicate the answer in the test booklet or on a separate answer sheet.

Nonverbal tests do not use words in the test item. These tests often require the student to respond to pictorial materials. The directions are administered orally. An example of a nonverbal test is the *Nonverbal Battery of Cognitive Abilities Test, Multi-Level Edition* published by Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1972, 1978.

Speed and Power Tests

A *speed test* usually requires a student to answer as many questions as possible during a given time limit. For example, the clerical speed and accuracy test on the *Differential Aptitude Test (DAT),* is a speed test because it determines how quickly and accurately one can identify same and different number and name combinations.

Power tests contain items which progress from easy to difficult. Because speed is not a factor, power tests give the examinee an ample amount of time to complete the test.

Objective and Subjective Tests

Objective tests may contain true-false, matching, multiple-choice, or completion items. In objective tests, the correct answer is determined when the test item is written. Therefore, the grader must either mark the test item as correct or incorrect. The answer key may be a punched out template for multiple choice answer sheets or a separate sheet with the answers listed for true-false, matching, multiple-choice, or completion items.

Subjective tests are usually essay or short answer responses to particular questions. Unlike the objective test, the subjective tests may or may not have one correct answer. The correct answer may need to be determined after the item has been answered. Therefore, two or more graders may grade the test with different results.

Norm-referenced and Criterion-referenced Tests

Norm-referenced tests compare students to other students who previously took the same tests. The norming population matches the students as much as possible with respect to age, grade, sex, and time of year that the test was administered. *Norms* may be developed nationally, regionally, or locally. It is, therefore, important that the proper norms are used when interpreting test results. For example, suppose one administered Form L of the DAT to eleventh grade students in the spring and wanted results to be expressed in percentiles. In interpreting John's score, we would need to find the percentile norm tables for Form L, grade 11, boys, and spring semester. The results would be interpreted as John did better than what percent of the student in the norming group for each of the separate tests. Most standardized tests are norm-referenced.

Unlike norm-referenced tests which compare students to a given population, *criterion-reference tests* refer to the performance of individual students. Criterion-referenced means that, for a given objective, a certain number of items must be answered correctly for the objective to be considered mastered. For example, an objective may be to have students divide a four-digit number by a one-digit number with remainder of zero. On a test, ten questions are sampled to test this objective. To satisfy this objective a student may be required to answer seven out of ten questions correctly (70%). Students who obtain 70% or better would pass the objective. Competency tests often indicate results using criterion referencing.

Group and Individual Tests

Group tests are administered to more than one individual at a time. These tests often require the examinee to use paper and pencil when answering the questions.

Individual tests are administered to one student at a time. These tests may be pencil and paper tests, but also may require the examinee to respond orally or to perform a given task such as solving a maze, describing an inkblot, or completing a design using blocks.

Raw and Standard Scores

A *raw score* is the actual number of correct responses on a test. For example, on a 20 word spelling test, a student who spells 16 words correctly earns a raw score of 16. Used alone, the raw score of 16 yields very little information. However, converting the raw score of 16 into a percent gives more information. In this example the student correctly answered 80% of the items.

Raw scores are often converted into standard scores. *Standard scores* are used to determine a student's position in relation to the norm. Knowing the standard deviation, mean, and raw score one can easily transform a raw score into a standard score using the following formula:

$$\text{Standard score} = \frac{\text{Raw Score} - \text{Mean}}{\text{Standard Deviation}}$$

Fortunately, a table of standard scores is usually provided for test users in the manual. One would look up the standard score (stanine, T-score, and so forth) using the raw score. However, one must be careful to use the correct table.

Validity and Reliability

Validity refers to the degree to which a test measures what it was designed to measure. *Content validity* refers to the extent to which a test is representative of the sample situation which is being measured. *Construct validity* is the degree to which a test measures some hypothetical quantity, e.g., self-concept. *Concurrent validity* is that which compares one test with another test which has a reputation of validity. *Predictive validity* is the ability of a test to foretell performance on a behavioral criterion.

Suppose a teacher administers a reading diagnostic test to a student. Results are such that the student may have a weakness in auditory discrimination. If the diagnostic test has high validity, the teacher may assume that the results of the test are also valid. The teacher may then use the results to help this student with the diagnosed reading difficulty.

Reliability refers to the consistency, dependability, stability, or trustworthiness of test results. There are four approaches which may be used to determine test reliability. *Test-retest reliability* is determined by administering the same test to subjects after some period of time. *Split-half reliability* is determined by dividing the test into halves, usually with all even numbered items in one test and all odd numbered items in another test. The scores obtained on the two halves are compared to determine internal consistency. *Alternate form reliability* involves administering different forms of a test to the same people and comparing their performance. *Kuder-Richardson reliability* involves determining how consistently all the items on a single test measure the same domain.

Reliability is reported as a coefficient which ranges from 0 (no relationship) to 1.0 (perfect relationship). Factors such as fatigue, health, testing conditions, and emotional exertion may contribute to unreliability of a test.

Test Battery

A *test battery* contains a number of individual tests which have been normed using the same population. Therefore, results of the different tests may be compared. Achievement test batteries may contain reading, language, math, science, and social studies tests in one booklet. These tests have been normed using the same population.

Activities

1. Select a standardized achievement test and determine if the instrument is

- *a. Pencil-and-Paper or Performance*
- *b. Verbal or Nonverbal*
- *c. Speed or Power*
- *d. Objective or Subjective*
- *e. Group or Individual*

2. Give reasons for your choice.

KINDS OF STANDARDIZED TESTS

This section describes some of the different kinds of standardized tests currently in use in schools. The survey begins with a description of achievement tests because most teachers are involved with administering them. However, interpretation of results of any of the standardized tests described in this section should not be attempted without the help of the school counselor or psychologist.

Achievement Tests

Most teachers are familiar with achievement tests. For example, teachers have been trained in the preparation and administration of classroom tests. Classroom tests are achievement tests because they assess the amount of information that has been learned by the students. These tests measure the outcomes of the school's curriculum and, for the most part, are criterion-referenced.

Standardized achievement tests are available from commercial publishers. Teachers may be required to administer these tests during the latter part of the school year or at the end of a course to determine what students have learned. These tests may be designed to test one subject or a group of subjects (test battery). Some standardized achievement tests are available for most levels of instruction.

Uses Made of Achievement Tests. Uses depend upon needs of the various school systems. First, an achievement test may be used to determine the academic growth of a student from one test administration to another. For example, in one county, students may be tested in October and retested (using a different form of the test) in May to determine the academic growth of students.

Second, results of achievement tests may be used for grouping students. Grouping students may reduce the number of students in a math or reading class to manageable, smaller groups. A teacher, knowing and using these results, can plan activities for these groups by focusing on individual needs of students.

Third, achievement tests may be used to help advise parents and students. Students need to make decisions which will enable them to plan for their future. These plans may include college or occupational decisions. In helping students make these decisions, a teacher should not rely solely upon results of one test, but should use other criteria such as the information contained in the cumulative folder (see Chapter 5).

Readiness Tests

Readiness tests are used to predict success when a student enters school or success in taking a subject such as algebra. The most commonly used readiness test is the reading readiness test. Students about to enter kindergarten or first grade may be administered a reading readiness test to determine whether the child has the skills necessary to successfully learn to read. In the upper grades, students may take an algebra readiness (prognosis) test to determine the probability of successfully completing algebra. In addition, readiness tests may reveal weaknesses which may require special attention.

Intelligence Tests

Sometimes referred to as ability tests, intelligence (I.Q.) tests are frequently used to assess learning ability. Intelligence tests may be used to group and to identify students with special gifts or problems. A school psychologist may administer an individual intelligence test to students to determine whether placement in a special class (specific learning disability, gifted and talented, or mentally handicapped) may help them to achieve their maximum potential.

Caution should be used when interpreting scores on intelligence tests. Teachers always should seek the help of the school psychologist to insure that results of tests are completely understood.

To illustrate this point, suppose a student with a reading deficiency was administered a verbal intelligence test. The score that he/she received would reflect the reading deficiency and not intelligence. In addition, intelligence tests may not reflect the intelligence of a student who comes from an environment which differs from the norming population.

Aptitude Tests

A student who wants to enroll for vocational training, take a special class, or major in a particular field in college may be given an aptitude test. An aptitude test is designed to predict a student's ability to succeed or learn a particular activity.

Many standardized aptitude tests are available. Two of the most popular are the *General Aptitude Test Battery* and the *Differential Aptitude Test.*

The *General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB)* is administered by the local State Employment Service. In some areas, high school counselors may request a special administration of the *GATB* at their school for students desiring to take the test. This test measures nine aptitude areas including intelligence, verbal, numerical, spatial, form perception, clerical perception, motor coordination, finger dexterity, and manual dexterity.

Published by the Psychological Corporation, the *Differential Aptitude Test (DAT)* is used in many high schools. The DAT is a battery of eight tests: verbal reasoning, numerical ability, abstract reasoning, clerical speed and accuracy, mechanical reasoning, space relations, and language usage (spelling and grammar). Unlike the GATB, the DAT is entirely a paper and pencil test.

Aptitude test results, together with achievement test results and other data, may help students obtain information about themselves to help them plan their future. For example, students may be better able to plan their educational and occupational goals based upon results of these tests. On the basis of their indicated strengths and weaknesses, students may be able to decide whether they should take a particular subject, major in a particular field, or pursue a certain career objective.

Aptitude tests should not be used as the sole criterion for making decisions. It would be wiser if the teacher, working with the student, used other criteria such as grades, interests, motivation, or achievement test results in helping make decisions.

Teachers should seek the help of the school counselor before discussing results of aptitude tests with the class. In fact, it would be wiser for the teacher to invite the counselor into the classroom to present and explain results of aptitude tests to the students.

Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic tests are used to determine an individual's specific area of deficiency in subjects such as reading or math. Results therefore may be used to individualize instruction by focusing on the particular area of weakness. For example, a third grade teacher discovers that a student is reading more than two grade levels below expectancy based on a recent administration of a reading achievement test. However, the teacher does not know specifically where the difficulty lies. Administering a reading diagnostic test such as the *Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test Level I* may reveal that the difficulty is in one or more of the following areas: reading comprehension, vocabulary, auditory discrimination, syllabication, beginning and ending sounds, blending, and/or sound discrimination. Using the results obtained from the test, the teacher may determine that the student needs remedial help in resolving the particular deficiency.

Interest Tests

Interest tests, more commonly referred to as interest inventories, are used to determine likes and dislikes of an individual. These inventories usually require the examinee to indicate whether he/she likes, dislikes, or is indifferent to a list of interests, hobbies, occupations, school subjects, and activities. Results yield general interest patterns which may correspond to some occupation. Two of the most commonly used interest inventories are the *Kuder Preference Record* and the *Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII)*.

Projective Tests

Projective tests require extensive training in administration and interpretation. Therefore, while teachers should be familiar with projective tests, they will seldom, if ever, administer one. These tests are commonly included among those called personality tests. Examples of some of the commonly used projective tests are the: *16PF Questionnaire, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), Rorschack Inkblot,* and *Thematic Apperception Test (TAT).* For example, suppose a student exhibits behavior which appears to be atypical. The teacher refers the students to the counselor who, with the permission of the parent, may determine that the student needs to see the school psychologist for further exploration. The psychologist may administer one or more projective tests to determine whether the student has an emotional problem. Based on the results of a projective test and other measures, a decision may be reached to place the student in a special class or to seek professional counseling.

In Table 4.1 are listed some examples of standardized tests by category. This table is used for clarification. Some tests listed under one category also may apply to another category.

Summary

This section described some of the types of standardized tests used in schools. The descriptions were brief because the purpose of this section was to have teachers become familiar with a variety of tests. Of all tests discussed, the achievement, diagnostic, and readiness tests are the most important for teachers to understand because they will have the most contact with them. Teachers desiring further information about tests are urged to read some of the references listed in the sections on sources of test information and the list of additional readings.

USES OF STANDARDIZED TESTS

In the previous section, some uses of particular tests were included with the description of the test. This section will describe in greater detail some common uses of standardized tests.

Group Students

Results of standardized tests may be used by teachers to group students with similar talents or deficiencies. For example, in a third grade class, a teacher may have four separate reading groups. These reading

Table 4.1
Examples of Standardized Tests

Kind of Test		Name of Tests
Achievement		California Achievement Test
		Metropolitan Achievement Test
		Stanford Achievement Test
		National Teacher Examination
		Scholastic Achievement Test
		Academic Clinicians Test
Aptitude		Differential Aptitude Test
		Meier Art Test
		General Aptitude Test Battery
Readiness/Prognostic		Orleans Algebra Prognosis Test
		Metropolitan Readiness Test
		Gates-MacGinitie Readiness Skills Test
Diagnostic		Stanford Diagnostic Mathematics Test
		Gates-McKillop Reading Diagnostic Test
		Diagnostic Reading Scales
Interest		Kuder From E—General Interest Survey
		Ohio Vocational Interest Survey
		Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory
Intelligence Cognitive Ability	Group	Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability
		Short-Form Test of Academic Aptitude
	Individual	Standford-Binet Scale Form L-M
		Wechsler Scales
Projective		16 PF Questionnaire
		Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
		Rorschach Inkblot Test
		Thematic Apperception Test

groups may have been developed to help students who are similar in auditory discrimination, vocabulary levels, comprehension, beginning or ending sounds, or difficulty with sound discrimination. Each of the four groups may focus attention on one or more specific skills listed previously.

Identify Students with Specific Needs

With the passage of PL94-142, many school systems throughout the country have developed programs specifically designed to the needs of exceptional students. For example, results of standardized tests such as intelligence and achievement tests may indicate that a particular student needs special help. Teachers may use results of these tests, together with non-test information, as a basis for referral to the counselor, psychologist, or special education teacher.

Modify the Curriculum

Teachers may use results of standardized tests to modify the curriculum. For example, results of a standardized achievement test in algebra may indicate that many students are having difficulty with factoring polynomials. Based on these results, the teacher may determine that more emphasis needs to be placed on this concept. Therefore, the teacher may need to change the method of presentation, assign more problems, or increase the amount of time spent in developing the polynomial concept.

Determine Readiness

Results of standardized tests may help teachers determine a student's readiness to enter a particular class. For example, algebra prognosis or readiness tests may indicate to the teacher whether a student has developed the necessary skills to succeed in algebra.

Help in Decision-Making Process

Based on results of aptitude, intelligence, and achievement tests, a student may decide whether to pursue a particular major in college or to enter a vocational training program. Results of these tests should be used to help students better understand themselves.

MISUSES OF STANDARDIZED TESTS

Assigning Grades—Sole Criterion

Standardized tests should not be used as the sole criterion for assigning grades in a course. Grades should be assigned based on both test and non-test data. To assign grades based on results of one standardized test assumes that the test is infallible. Every standardized test has some degree of error. In addition, the objectives for which test items were developed may not adequately reflect the curriculum in a particular school.

Evaluating Teacher

Because of the strong emphasis placed on the results of standardized tests in some school districts, teachers may conclude that the results will be used to determine their effectiveness as a classroom teacher. For example, in one class, students performed poorly on a particular achievement test. The teacher believed that he would be evaluated as a poor teacher because of the results of the test. Teachers, as well as some administrators, need to understand that test results should be used to help students. The teacher in the example could have used the results to modify the curriculum.

Teaching to the Test

Some teachers obtain copies of the test and teach the specific material in the test. The misuse is closely related to the previous misuse. If a school places a great amount of emphasis on a particular test, teachers may decide to teach to the test. The practice may result in a weaker curriculum because objectives and goals in the curriculum which are not tested would be eliminated or glanced over.

Labeling Students

Test results should not be used to label students. A conversation overheard in a faculty lounge illustrates this point. One teacher was telling another that this year is going to be an impossible one. The teacher said, "I don't know how I will be able to teach them. Not one of the students has an I.Q. over 95." This comment was made after reviewing the results of group intelligence tests scores from the previous year.

Evaluating the School

Standardized test results should not be used to evaluate the school. A newspaper recently reported the results of a countywide achievement testing program. The article listed the schools in order of how well the students scored on the standardized achievement test. Schools which fell short of the national norms were indicated by placing an asterisk next to the name. Articles such as the one illustrated place undue emphasis on the results of a single achievement test. This may result in the community making judgments about the success or failure of their schools.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT TESTS

The purpose of this section is to provide the teacher with some of the basic sources that may be used to find additional information about standardized tests. In particular, it may be used by the teacher to find information about a specific standardized test that may be administered locally. It should be used as a guide whereby answers to particular questions such as uses, purposes, and directions for administration of tests may be found.

School Counselor

The counselor is the first source of information about standardized tests that will be administered. Counselors have training and experience in the administration and interpretation of standardized tests. Teachers should seek the help of the counselor if they are experiencing any difficulty with the administration of the test. If a group of teachers find that they are having similar difficulties, they may ask the counselor to conduct an inservice training program. The inservice training received by those teachers may prevent problems from arising during the actual administration of a test.

Test Manual

A second source of information about the test is the test manual. The test manual contains directions for administering the test. Usually, directions, which must be read aloud to the students, are printed in boldface type. Teachers must strictly adhere to directions in the manual to insure that the test is being administered under standardized conditions.

Along with directions, the test manual may provide the students with sample questions. These sample questions are usually similar to items found in the test. After the sample questions are worked, the teacher using the manual indicates the time limits for each section of the test.

In addition to the previous information, test manuals should provide information on the development of the test, scoring the test, interpreting results of the test, describing the norming population, purpose and use of the test, and evidence of validity and reliability.

An excellent source of information on the essential standards of manuals and standardized tests is the *Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests* (1974) published by the American Psychological Association. The standards are grouped according to three levels: essential, very desirable, and desirable.

Activity Using a Test Manual

Select a standardized test manual appropriate to your educational setting and answer the following questions:

1. *What are some of the stated purposes and uses for the test?*

2. *What are some, if any, of the special qualifications needed to administer the test?*

3. *Are directions for administering the test stated clearly?*

4. *Are directions for scoring the test stated clearly? How is the test scored? Does the test require the use of special answer sheets?*

5. *How was the test developed?*

6. *Describe the norming sample that was used. How does the sample compare to other students?*

7. *How are scores reported (percentiles, grade equivalents, stanines, or what)?*

8. *Are sample questions given in the manual? If so, are they similar to items in the test?*

9. *Are validity and reliability data reported? If so, what are they?*

10. *Would you, given the opportunity, select this test for use? Why or Why Not?*

Test Publishers

Most publishers provide catalogues of their tests. These catalogues are free and they list tests by area (intelligence, achievement, aptitude, and so forth) and describe each test. In addition, catalogues give the cost, number of tests per package, and ordering information.

Listed are some of the publishers of standardized tests:

American College Testing Program
P.O. Box 168
Iowa City, IA 52240

American Guidance Services, Inc.
720 Washington Avenue, S.E.
Minneapolis, MN 55414

Bobbs-Merrill Educational Publishing
4300 West 62nd Street
Indianapolis, IN 46206

The College Board
88 Seventh Avenue
New York, NY 10106

Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, CA 94306

CTB/McGraw-Hill
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, CA 93940

Houghton-Mifflin Co.
One Beacon Street
Boston, MA 02102

The Psychological Corporation
757 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Riverside Publishing Co.
1919 South Highland Avenue
Lombard, IL 60148

Scholastic Testing Service
480 Meyers Road
Bensenville, IL 60106

Science Research Associates
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, IL 60611

Scott, Foresman & Co.
1900 East Lake Avenue
Glenview, IL 60025

Buros' Mental Measurements Yearbook

Buros' Mental Measurements Yearbook is a valuable source of information about tests. The eighth edition of this work was published in 1978 and contains information on over 1,000 tests currently available. It also includes reviews of tests, a directory of tests and book publishers, and an index, by title and author, of tests. This two-volume work is the encyclopedia of tests.

Textbooks

College tests and measurement textbooks provide information about various tests. Teachers desiring additional information about the theory and practice of testing are urged to refer to these textbooks. A list of selected texts is included at the end of this chapter.

Professional Journals

Some professional journals provide test reviews. Two of the most popular are the *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance Journal* and the *Journal of Educational Measurement.* These journals are published quarterly.

STATEWIDE ASSESSMENT PROGRAMS

Statewide assessment programs developed from a public cry for accountability in schools. Today, approximately 40 states have mandated some form of minimum competency testing. Because of limitations of space, it is impossible to report on all 40 statewide assessment programs. Therefore, a description of the Florida Assessment Program will serve as example. Teachers interested in learning about the testing program in a particular state are advised to write for information from the state department of education.

The Florida State Assessment Program is designed to test students in grades three, five, eight, and eleven in the basic skills. In grade 11, the student takes two parts of the test. Part one tests the students in the areas of mathematics, reading, and writing. Test items in part two require a student to apply the basic skills to real situations. For example, some of the skills in part two are determining the solution to problems involving comparison shopping, distinguishing between facts and opinions, and completing correctly a check and its stub. A student in grade 11 must pass part two of the test. If a student does not pass part two of the test then that student will have two additional chances in grade 11 and two additional chances to take part two in grade 12. Students who fail part two in grade 12 may continue high school for another year.

When results are returned to the school, the teacher receives a computer printout for each student indicating which skills were assessed and whether the skills were mastered. This information is indicated on the print-out by a "yes" or "no" under the "skill achieved" column. Shepard (1980) defined minimum competency tests as mastery tests designed to classify students as masters and non-masters.

An example of a student report for a hypothetical student is presented in Table 4.2. Using this report, the teacher has a list of skills that were tested in third grade mathematics. For each skill, the teacher can determine the correct answers needed to achieve the particular skill (column 1). The teacher can then determine the number of correct answers that John obtained for each skill (column 2). A list of items numbers on the test which correspond to each skill can be observed (columns 3-7). The letter indicated next to the item number indicates the incorrect response that was made by the student. A teacher may check the test booklet to find out what response was selected by the student. In the "skills achieved" column, the teacher can easily find those skills which were not achieved by looking for "no." For those skills not achieved, the teacher may provide remediation for John. Once the skill has been remedied and tested by the teacher, the teacher must initial and date when the skill was achieved. This report is included in John's folder. Teachers are required to retain a mathematics, reading, and writing folder for each student.

Uses of Statewide Assessment Tests

Uses of standardized tests included in a previous section of this chapter are applicable to Statewide Assessment Tests. In *A Guide to 1980-81 Statewide Assessment Results* (1980) published by the Florida State Department of Education provided teachers with questions that may enhance the use of results. These include:

1. In what instructional areas are students strongest?
2. In what areas are they weakest?

Table 4.2
Example of Student Report from State Assessment Program

GRADE
3

MATHEMATICS SKILLS
NAME: John Smith
STUDENT I.D. 4001

1980-81 STUDENT REPORT
BIRTHDATE: 2/25/70
DIST. DATA

FLORIDA STATEWIDE
ASSESSMENT PROGRAM

	Mathematics Skills	**Correct Answers Needed**	**# of Items Answered Correctly**	**Items Nos. and Responses**					**Skill Achieved**	**Remediation Initial**	**Date**
MATHEMATICS	A. 1. Counts up to 100 objects	4/5	4	81	82B	83	84	85	YES		
	B. 2. Read and write numbers less than 100	4/5	5	140	141	142	143	144	YES		
	E. 7. Identify halves, thirds, or fourths	4/5	3	131D	132	133C	134	135	NO	L.B.	3/81
	F. 9. ADD three 1-digit numbers (sum less than 19)	4/5	5	86	87	88	89	90	YES		
	F. 10. ADD two 2-digit numbers (no carrying)	4/5	4	91C	92	93	94	95	YES		
	C. 12. Subtract basic combinations (subtraction facts)	4/5	3	101C	102	103C	104	105	NO	L.B.	12/80
	C. 13. Subtract 1-digit from 2-digit numbers (no borrowing)	4/5	5	106	107	108	109	110	YES		
	C. 14. Subtract 2-digit numbers without borrowing	4/5	5	111	112	113	114	115	YES		
	O. 17. Tell time on the hour and half-hour	4/5	4	121	122B	123	124	125	YES		
	O. 18. Determine the length of an object	3/4	4	145	146	147	148		YES		
	Q. 20. Identify sets of coins equal in value	4/5	5	116	117	118	119	120	YES		
	T. 21. Solve word problems involving addition	4/5	4	126A	127	128	129	130	YES		
	T. 22. Solve word problems involving subtraction	3/4	4	136	137	138	139		YES		
	V. 24. Subtract to solve practical money problems under 50¢	4/5	2	96C	97B	98A	99	100	NO	L.B.	4/81

NOTE. From *A Guide to 1980-81 Statewide Assessment Results* (p. 4), 1980, Tallahassee, FL: Department of Education (No copyright).

3. Did students perform well on skills which are local priorities?

4. Are there any surprise areas of weakness?

5. On which skills do students appear to need further assistance and in what order should they be considered?

6. How do these results compare with previous results? (p. 15)

Pros and Cons

The controversy which has developed over the minimum competency movement is widespread. This controversy has even extended to the courts (Debra P. v. Turlington). Examine this controversy in light of the "pros" and "cons".

Supporters of minimum competency testing believe that it can help to eliminate weaknesses and enhance learning. Students who do not pass particular skills may need remediation. The information provided by the results of these tests may help teachers identify learning problems. These problems may be remediated before additional problems develop. Students can thereby receive the individual help that is needed. Thus, the supporters of this movement believe that through accountability the public may support education.

Non-supporters of minimum competency tests believe that these tests are biased. Students in Florida who failed the test have brought the issue into the courts (Debra P. v. Turlington). Pullin (1981) reported that the court ruled it to be unfair and unlawful to deny a diploma because a student failed a test that measures skills which they have not been taught.

In addition, non-supporters believe that the importance placed on these tests will force teachers to teach to the test. This may result in non-tested areas of the curriculum receiving little attention.

Finally, some people believe that schools give too many tests to students. For example, in one school district, students tested with the minimum competency test in the Fall were also administered an achievement test battery in the Spring. With all this testing, very few of schools gave a test in the area of life skills.

Teacher Competency

The competency testing movement has extended into the area of teacher certification. Many states currently require teacher candidates to take a competency test prior to awarding them certification. These tests may be prepared by organizations such as the Education Testing Service or may be developed by the State Department of Education.

Teacher certification examinations may test teacher candidates in the following areas: mathematics, English, writing ability, and general education methods. Therefore, like minimum competency tests for students, teacher competency tests also assess basic skills which teachers are expected to have before entering a classroom.

Truth-in-Testing Laws

In addition to the competency testing movement, the work of Ralph Nader and his associates deserves attention. Nader and his staff have attacked some of the standardized tests used to regulate admissions to college, graduate, and professional schools. In Nairn's (1980) report on the Nader investigation, *The Reign of ETS: The Corporation that Makes-up Minds,* Nader reported that SAT scores are no better than gambling with dice in predicting college success. This report proposed that ETS permit students to obtain test questions and answers for the SAT and provide enough information about the test to help them understand results. As a result of their work, truth-in-testing laws have been enacted in New York and California.

SUMMARY

This chapter examined some of the characteristics of standardized tests. A brief description of the different kinds and terms of testing was included to give teachers some test wiseness. Because teachers must use results carefully, some uses and misuses of standardized tests were included. Finally, because of the importance of competency tests, a section concerning this movement also was included.

SUGGESTED READING

Textbooks on Testing

Gronlund, N. E. (1981). *Measurement and evaluation in teaching* (4th ed.). New York: Macmillan.

Karmel, L. J., & Karmel, M. O. (1978). *Measurement and evaluation in the schools* (2nd ed.). New York: Macmillan.

Noel, V. H., Scannell, D. P., & Craig, R. C. (1979). *Introduction to educational measurement* (4th. ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Thorndike, R. L., & Hagen, E. P. (1977). *Measurement and evaluation in psychology and education* (4th ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Test Bulletins

The following test bulletins are free and may be ordered from the Psychological Corporation, 757 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017:

Burrell, L. E. *How a standardized achievement test is built.* Test Service Notebook, No. 125.

Burrell, L. E., & Wilson, R. *Fairness and the matter of bias.* Test Service Notebook, No. 36.

Lennon, R. T. *Testing: Bond or barrier between pupil and teacher?* Test Service Notebook, No. 82.

Mitchell, B. C. *A glossary of measurement terms.* Test Service Notebook, No. 13.

On telling parents about test results. Test Service Notebook, No. 154.

Ricks, J. H. *Local norms—when and why.* Test Service Notebook, No. 148.

Seashore, H. C. *Methods of expressing test scores.* Test Service Notebook, No. 148.

Some things parents should know about testing. Test Service Notebook, No. 34.

Westman, A. G. *Aptitude, intelligence, and achievement.* Test Service Notebook, No. 151.

Wilson, R. *Criterion-referenced testing.* Test Service Notebook, No. 37.

Wrightstone, J. W., Hogan, J. P., & Abbott, M. M. *Accountability in education and associated measurement problems.* Test Service Notebook, No. 33.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Nairn, A. (1980). *The reign of ETS: The corporation that makes up minds.* Washington, DC: Ralph Nadar.

Pullin, D. (1981). Minimum competency testing and the demand for accountability. *Phi Delta Kappan, 63,* 20-22.

Shepard, L. (1980). Technical issues in minimum competency testing. In D.C. Berliner (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education, 8,* pp. 30-84. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

CHAPTER 5

INTERRELATING NONSTANDARDIZED INFORMATION WITH OTHER DATA

In Chapter 4 was examined the use of test information as one source of information about students. Used alone, tests give a partial picture of the student. Tests, particularly standardized ones, provide the user with objective data. In using such information, the teacher should consult with the counselor for he/she has received training in interpretation of test results.

Other sources of information about students to which teachers may wish to refer are cumulative records, results from observational techniques, rating scales, sociometric techniques, autobiographies, anecdotal records, and case studies. In this chapter these will be examined each in order to obtain additional information so that the teacher may help the student succeed in school and life.

CUMULATIVE RECORDS

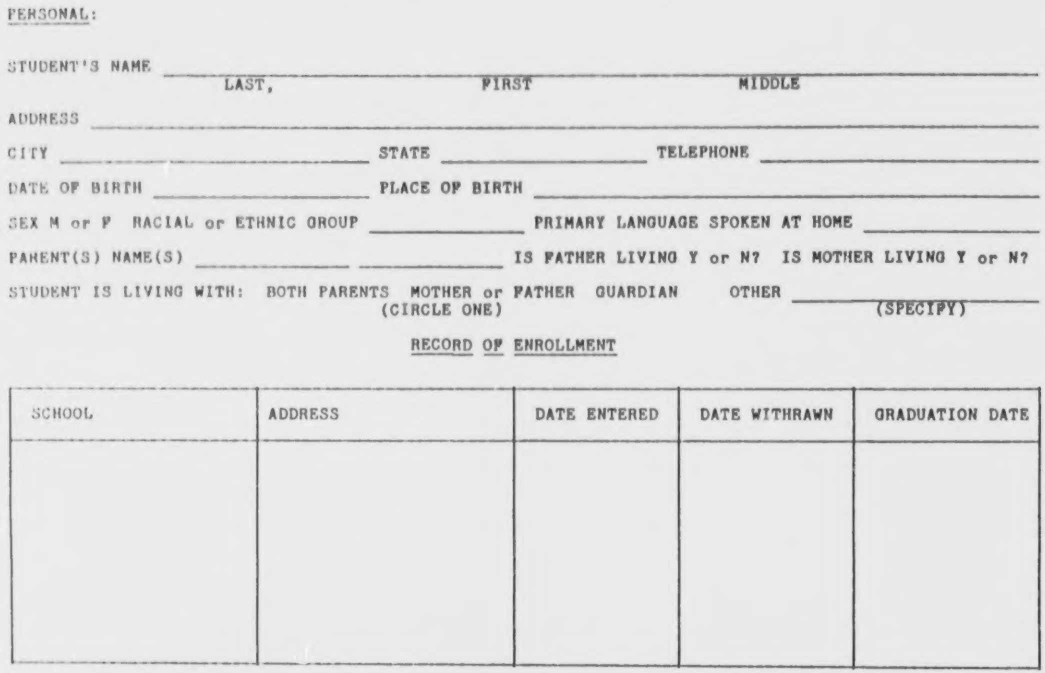
Suppose that a teacher needs to obtain some information about a student. The first place for the teacher to check is the cumulative record file. This file usually is found in or near the main office. Teachers may find that the file is locked and that they have to obtain the key from the principal or the counselor. Procedures may vary depending upon board or individual school policy.

A cumulative record or folder is usually a large file folder designed to organize and collect essential information about the student. As a student progresses from grade K through 12, the cumulative record also accompanies him/her. The information contained in the cumulative record is confidential and is protected by the *Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act* (1974). An example of a cumulative folder is illustrated in Table 5.1.

Cumulative records usually contain a section on personal and family background. In this section a teacher may find the student's address, date and place of birth, and telephone number. Also included are the names of the student's parents with information about whether they are living or deceased, married, divorced, or separated. In addition, the record of enrollment, race, and primary language spoken at home may be included.

A record of standardized tests and grades (Table 5.2) obtained by the student may be found either on the front cover of the cumulative record or on a permanent record card which is inserted in the cumulative folder. Using this information, a teacher can determine the academic strengths and weaknesses of their students. With this information, a teacher may design a course of study geared to all student levels.

TABLE 5.1
Cumulative Record: Personal Information



PERSONAL:

STUDENT'S NAME ____
LAST, FIRST MIDDLE

ADDRESS ____

CITY ______________ STATE ______________ TELEPHONE ______________

DATE OF BIRTH ______________ PLACE OF BIRTH ______________

SEX M or F RACIAL or ETHNIC GROUP ______________ PRIMARY LANGUAGE SPOKEN AT HOME ______________

PARENT(S) NAME(S) ______________ ______________ IS FATHER LIVING Y or N? IS MOTHER LIVING Y or N?

STUDENT IS LIVING WITH: BOTH PARENTS MOTHER or FATHER GUARDIAN OTHER ______________
(CIRCLE ONE) (SPECIFY)

RECORD OF ENROLLMENT

SCHOOL	ADDRESS	DATE ENTERED	DATE WITHRAWN	GRADUATION DATE

TABLE 5.2
Cumulative Record: Academic Grades and Standardized Tests

ACADEMIC

SCHOOL ______________________ GRADE ______________ YEAR ________

IS THE CHILD IN A SPECIAL PROGRAM YES OR NO. IF YES, SPECIFY ______________________

TOTAL DAYS ABSENT ________________ PRESENT ________________

ACHIEVEMENT

SUBJECT	GRADE
ENGLISH	
MATH	
SCIENCE	
SOCIAL STUDIES	
PE	
MUSIC	
HEALTH	

STANDARDIZED TEST SCORES
(PLACE SCORES HERE)

TEACHER'S COMMENTS:

PROMOTED: YES or NO

TEACHER'S NAME ______________________

In addition, with the competency test movement underway, a teacher may find pupil progression folders for mathematics, reading, and writing. These individualized folders contain work samples and a checklist of competencies that must be mastered for each grade. The classroom teacher is responsible for maintaining pupil progression folders up to date. If the student withdraws from school, teachers are required to file the pupil progression folders with the cumulative folder.

The cumulative record usually contains the student's health record. Health records usually contain a list of diseases and illnesses that a student has had. A record of immunizations and medications that a student may be taking also is included. Teachers may notice that a student is having difficulty staying awake in class or that he/she is extremely hyperactive. Examining the health records of this student may yield information indicating reasons the student is having difficulty staying awake or why he/she is hyperactive. If the teacher fails to determine reasons for the difficulty, a parent conference may be needed to discuss the situation.

Also included in the cumulative record is a collection of comments made by former teachers. However, because parents now have a right to review their child's records and to remove negative comments made by teachers, many teachers refrain from making comments on the cumulative record. Because the information contained in the cumulative record should be used to help the student, keeping the information current is vital.

Information contained in the cumulative record should be examined using all data within. A teacher must be objective when using information contained in the cumulative folder. Teachers must avoid using isolated, negative data and making judgments based solely on this information. Remember, the purpose of examining the cumulative record is to use the information to enable students to achieve to their maximum potential.

In addition, teachers must use care when inserting information about the student in the cumulative record. Teachers should not include information which would be injurious to a student's future. To protect the student from such practices, the *Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act* was enacted by Congress in 1974. Students and parents, therefore, have the right to examine contents of the cumulative record and to remove information deemed to be injurious to the student.

Used over a period of time, the cumulative record provides the student's teachers, counselors, administrators, and school psychologists with important information about the student. Information contained in the cumulative record may be shared with other agencies; however, parent permission must be granted in writing if the student is under eighteen.

Many school systems use computers for student data storage and retrieval. The next decade will witness even more school systems using computers for data such as that contained in the cumulative record. The use of a computer permits school personnel to store complete student records on magnetic tapes or in electronic files. These data are then accessible to school personnel at terminals located throughout the school building. A computer system can store all the information included on the conventional cumulative record as well as offer new potential for where and how student data may be stored and retrieved.

OBSERVATIONAL TECHNIQUES

During the first few weeks of school, a teacher discovers that one student is having difficulty sitting in his/her seat. The teacher has reviewed the cumulative record and is unable to draw conclusions as to what is causing the student's behavior. Additional data is needed. What can the teacher do?

The teacher may decide to use one of the observational techniques discussed in this section. Observational techniques are nontest methods used to gather information about students. We will limit our discussion to the commonly used observational techniques: observation, rating scale, sociogram, autobiography, anecdotal record, and the case study and conference.

Observations

An observation is a record of a particular behavior. Using our example, the behavior which we are interested in observing is how often and under what conditions does the student leave his/her seat. A number of steps must be followed by the observer.

First, the teacher should determine what behavior will be observed prior to the actual observation. Before beginning the actual observation, the teacher is advised to consult with the school counselor. The counselor should be able to help the teacher define as well as determine the best means for recording the particular behavior. In our example, the teacher may decide to record the number of times the student left his/her seat over a specified time period.

Second, the teacher should determine whether the observation will be recorded in narrative form or coded. In our example, the teacher should tally the number of times the student left his/her seat during a thirty minute time period. This is not only quicker but almost guarantees that future behaviors are not overlooked.

Third, the teacher should observe only one student during a given time period. If a teacher observes more than one student at a time, chances are that he/she will err and the teacher may record one student's behavior in the place of another student.

Fourth, the teacher should observe a student on at least three different days and during different time periods. This practice may avoid errors in sampling. For example, a teacher determined that a student left his/her seat more in the afternoon than in the morning. Upon further investigation, the teacher discovered that the student ate three candy bars during lunch. This fact was communicated to the student's parent at a conference. The student was restricted from eating candy during lunchtime and as a result, the unwanted behavior was eliminated.

Fifth, a teacher needs to know how to indicate inferences. Although observations should record behavior as objectively and accurately as possible, there may be certain circumstances which require inferences. An easy way to indicate an inference in the observation is to place the inference in parentheses. This procedure would enable the reader to determine that the statement is an inference or the observer's opinion. As a rule, inferences should be used sparingly because the primary function of the observer is that of a recorder of behavior.

Lastly, the teacher should record the behavior when it occurs. Recording the behavior at a later time may result in an inaccurate assessment of the student.

Advantages of Observations

1. Observations focus on a particular behavior and student.
2. Observations record the behavior as it occurs.

Disadvantages of Observations

1. Observations are time consuming. A teacher may discover that recording behaviors is taking time away from teaching duties.
2. Observations may be biased. Some teachers may find it difficult to record a student objectively when he/she manifests unwanted behavior.

The previous disadvantages may be eliminated by selecting someone other than the student's teacher to act as observer. This observer may be the counselor or another teacher. To avoid bias, the counselor or teacher should select someone who does not know the student.

Concluding Remarks

An observation is only as good as the observer. The observer needs to be trained in observational techniques. Teachers can request the counselor to conduct an in-service training program on observational techniques. During the in-service training sessions, the counselor may include: how to determine what is to be observed, bias in observation, how to record observations, and how to record inferences.

Observations should provide the school personnel with information to help the student. Used in conjunction with other data, these observations may help the teacher and counselor determine ways to eliminate unwanted behavior. Before concluding this discussion on observation, an additional point must be made. An observer is not an invisible person. Therefore, at times the presence of an observer may cause the behavior in question not to be manifested. In this case, the observer may need to extend the number of observations.

RATING SCALES

A rating scale is usually more structured than the observational technique previously described. While the observational technique typically requires an observer to either write descriptive behaviors or tally the frequency of selected behaviors, the rating scale requires a rater to read a number of statements and to place a check or an "X" under the appropriate category. The categories may be outstanding, satisfactory, unsatisfactory, or any category deemed appropriate by other schools personnel or teachers.

Direct observations are completed when the observation is made. Rating scales may be completed during an observation or at a later time. Rating scales completed at a later time are usually referred to as remembered behavior. For example, a teacher, administrator, or counselor may be asked to complete a rating scale for a former student who has applied to a college or for a job.

Unlike direct observations, rating scales are easy to complete. Usually a person is required to read a few statements and check below average, average, good, outstanding, or did not observe.

Uses of Rating Scales

School personnel may use rating scales for end-of-the-year comments, recommendations to schools and jobs, exceptional and scholarship programs, social and work habits on report cards, and referrals to outside agencies.

Report card preparers have utilized rating scales to indicate conduct, work habits, cooperation, and effort on the part of the student. A teacher may assign +'s or -'s or letter designations such as 0, S, or U for outstanding, satisfactory, or unsatisfactory next to the statements describing the behavior (Table 5.3). The type of designation used is determined by school system policies.

TABLE 5.3
Example of One Part of a Report Card

IN MARKING, USE THE FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS:

O = OUTSTANDING S = SATISFACTORY U = UNSATISFACTORY

	1st Quarter	2nd Quarter	3rd Quarter	4th Quarter
1. Completes Assignments				
2. Class Participation				
3. Effort				
4. Work Habits				
5. Works with Others				
6. Cooperation				
7. Citizenship				
8. Conduct				

Additionally, teachers and administrators frequently receive requests from former students who have applied to colleges, technical schools, or work. These recommendations usually consist of a rating scale with space provided at the bottom which may be used to make additional comments. An example of the statements or words on a college rating scale may include: academic potential, emotional stability, cooperation, motivation, and an ability to work independently. After considering each of the previous statements or words, the respondent may be directed to place a mark under one of the following categories: low, average, high, or not observed.

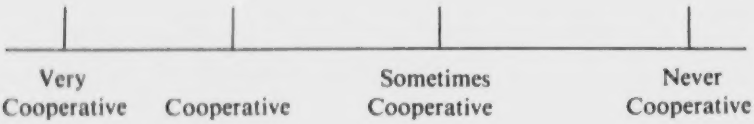
Kinds of Rating Scales

Kerlinger (1973) listed five kinds of rating scales: numerical, graphic, checklist, category, and forced-choice. A brief description of these five kinds of rating scales follows.

Numerical Rating Scales. These rating scales include statements which describe various traits or personal attributes such as works well with others, completes work, and shows initiative. A rater would be required to place a number next to each statement. These numbers would correspond to selected words or comments. For example, 1 equals always, 2 equals sometimes, and 3 equals never.

Numerical rating scales may be self-rating scales or rating scales completed by someone else. *Self-rating scales* may provide a teacher or counselor with information about a student as the student perceives self. The rating sheet completed by another person is marked so that person perceives the person being rated.

Graphic Rating Scales. These rating scales may list several traits along a continuum and require a rater to place a check or "x" at the point which best describes the student. For example:



Checklists. These rating scales (Table 5.4) may be used by school personnel as screening devices. These rating scales may be used by school personnel prior to placement in an exceptional program such as gifted-talented, emotionally handicapped, specific-learning disability, or mentally handicapped. Checklists may be completed by the student's classroom teacher, counselor, or administrator.

TABLE 5.4
Example of a Check List

STUDENT______________________________ GRADE__________ LIST__________

FOR EACH STATEMENT, PLACE A CHECK OR "X" UNDER THE CATEGORY WHICH BEST DESCRIBES THE STUDENT.

	OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	NOT OBSERVED
1. Completes Assignments on Time				
2. Use of Time				
3. Shows Initiative				
4. Resourceful				
5. Follows Directions				
6. Works Well With Others				
7. Works to Full Capacity				
8. Seeks Additional Tasks				
9. Shows Effort				
10. Is Responsible				

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

____

____

____

____
TEACHER'S SIGNATURE

Category Rating Scales. In a category rating scale is listed a number of statements related to a particular category followed by a list of choices. The rater is required to place a check or "X" next to the choice that applies. For example, under the category sociable:

How sociable is he/she? (Check one)

______ Very Sociable
______ Sociable
______ Sometimes Sociable
______ Seldom Sociable
______ Unsociable

Forced Choice Rating Scales. These scales enable the rater to check two or more choices under a particular trait. This rating scale requires or forces the rater to check at least two choices. For example:

Check the words which best describe the person:

______ Reliable
______ Likeable
______ Resourceful
______ Alert
______ Cooperative
______ Creative
______ Intelligent
______ Sociable

Developing a Rating Scale

Almost any teacher, counselor, or administrator can make a rating scale with practice. In developing a rating scale, the developer must know and define the purpose and objective of the scale. For example, will the rating scale be used as a screening or an evaluative device? Second, the individual must decide which kind or type of rating scale to develop. For example, will it be a numerical, graphic, checklist, category, or forced-choice type?

Most school systems personnel have developed their own rating scales which are suitable to most situations. These rating scales are available to all the school personnel in the system. If a school person needs a particular rating scale which is not available locally, then he/she may purchase one commercially. The school person may refer to *The Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook* edited by Oscar K. Buros (1978) for sources. Using the previous work, some commercially published rating scales have been selected to present in Table 5.5.

TABLE 5.5
Commercially Prepared Rating Scales

Names of Scale	Grade	Author(s)	Publisher
CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE QUESTIONNAIRE	4-9	James K. Hoffmeister	Test Analysis & Development
COURSE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE	High School-College	James K. Hoffmeister	Test Analysis & Development
ESTES ATTITUDE SCALES	Elem Form: (2-6) Upper Level: (6-12)	Thomas H. Estes et al.	Virginia Research Associates
PARENT OPINION INVENTORY	Elem. & Secondary		National Study of School Evaluation
SURVEY OF SCHOOL ATTITUDES	Primary: (1-4) Intermediate (4-8)	Thomas P. Hogan	Psychological Corp.
CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT SCALE	7-12	Rudolf H. Moos	Consulting Psychologists Press
GETTING ALONG	7-9	Trudys Lawrence	AUTHOR
MY SELF CHECKLIST	1-9	Robert E. Valett	Fearon Publishers, Inc.
OTTAWA SCHOOL BEHAVIOR CHECK LIST	6-12	June B. Primm Gordon McClure	Primm Consultants LTD
THE SCHOOL ATTITUDE SURVEY: FEELINGS I HAVE ABOUT SCHOOL	3-6	Harold F. Burks	Arden Press
SELF-CONCEPT AS A LEARNER SCALE	4-12	Walter B. Waetjen	AUTHOR
THE CORNELL LEARNING AND STUDY SKILLS INVENTORY	7-13 13-16	Walter Pauk & Russell Cassel	Psychologists and Educators, Inc.
STUDY SKILLS SURVEYS	9-16	William F. Brown	Effective Study Materials

NOTE. Table based on information in *The Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook* (pp. 491-1361) by O. K. Buros, 1978, Highland Park, NJ: The Gryphon Press. Copyright 1978 by the Gryphon Press.

Strengths of the Rating Scale

1. A rating scale is easy to make. Any teacher, counselor or administrator can make a rating scale with some practice.

2. A rating scale is easy to complete. Usually, a rater is simply required to place a check or "X" in a box or space following the statement or word.

3. A rating scale is adapted to many situations. Rating scales may be used by the classroom teacher as an evaluative, screening, or self-rating device.

Weaknesses of the Rating Scale

1. A rating scale completed by the teacher may be biased. The teacher's impressions of a student may influence the ratings made. For example, a teacher who likes a particular student may rate the student more highly than a student whom a teacher may dislike.

2. Some raters are too easy or too strict in their evaluation. The easy rater may check all statements high, while the strict rater may check all statements low.

3. Some raters consistently rate in the middle of the scale. This often results when the rater does not understand a particular trait or term. Therefore, it is important that a rater understand the meaning of various statements and words to be rated.

4. Another weakness involves the reliability of a rating scale. Rating scales are subjective and may reflect the biases that a rater may hold toward the student.

Concluding Remarks

A rating scale should never be used alone. To get a complete picture of a student, the teacher should collect as much information from various sources about the student. Rating scales, therefore, give only a partial picture of the student as perceived by the raters during a given time.

SOCIOMETRIC TECHNIQUES

In order to determine the internal social structure in a class, a teacher may construct a sociogram. A sociogram is simple to construct and may provide valuable information on the social structure of a class. For example, a teacher who wants to understand friendship patterns and class leaders would construct a sociogram. A sociogram may be used at any grade level. Sociograms are commonly referred to as nominating techniques because students are usually requested to choose people with whom they prefer to work. In Table 5.6 are sociometric terms, definitions, and how they are represented.

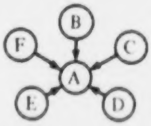
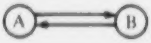
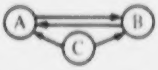
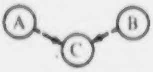
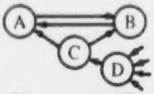
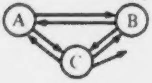
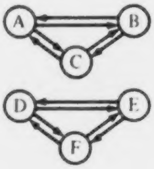
Procedures and Methods in Constructing Sociograms

In constructing a sociogram, a teacher may say, "We are going to form groups to work on a project for our unit on fractions. On a sheet of paper, I would like you to write your name in the upper right-hand corner and list three people with whom you want to work on this project."

The teacher collects the papers and begins to construct the sociogram. A choice is indicated by an arrow pointing to the choices. An arrow pointing in both directions indicates a mutual choice. Squares may be used for boys and circles for girls. In Figure 5.1 is illustrated a sociogram constructed from choices made by students in an elementary school class. Their choices were as follows:

Student	**Choices**
Timothy	Michael, Jeff, Kenneth
Kenneth	Michael, Timothy, Joan
Joan	Michael, Karl, Timothy
Michael	Kenneth, Lynn, Thomas
Lynn	Michael, Faye, Timothy
Thomas	Michael, Joan, Lynn
Jeff	Anne, Joseph, Ginger
Anne	Jeff, Joseph, Susan
Joseph	Anne, Ginger, Jeff
Patricia	Anne, Joseph, Susan
Karl	Ginger, Susan, Fred
Ginger	Susan, Anne, Faye
Susan	Ginger, Fred, Anne
Fred	Ginger, Susan, Karl
Anne B.	Ginger, Susan, Faye
Faye	Ginger, Anne, Fred

TABLE 5.6
Sociometric Terms, Definitions, and Representations

TERM	DEFINITION	REPRESENTATION
Star	A student who receives a large number of choices, or a number larger than chance	
Mutual Choice	Students who choose each other	
Isolate	A student who receives no positive choices (e.g., student C)	
Rejectee	A student who is actively rejected by group members (if rejection data are gathered)	
Neglectee	A student who receives very few positive choices (e.g., student C)	
Sociometric Clique	A number of individuals who choose each other but make very few choices outside the group	
Sociometric Cleavage	A lack of sociometric choices between two or more subgroups, e.g., boys and girls	

NOTE. From *Fundamentals of Individual Appraisal* (p. 432) by B. Shertzer and J. O. Linden, 1979, Boston: Houghton Mifflin. Copyright by Houghton Mifflin. Reprinted by permission.

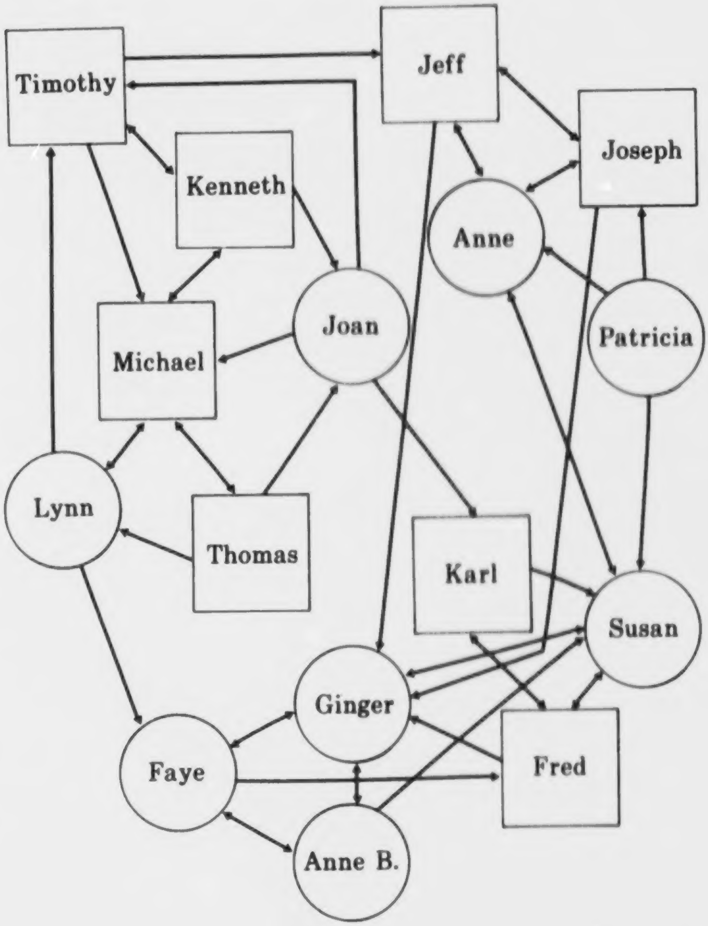

Timothy
Jeff
Joseph
Kenneth
Anne
Joan
Patricia
Michael
Lynn
Thomas
Karl
Susan
Ginger
Fred
Faye
Anne B.

Figure 5.1 Sociogram of an elementary school class.

Results

Michael, Susan, and Ginger would be the "stars" because they received the largest number of choices. These three are popular students and may prove to be good leaders for future groups.

A number of mutual choices were made. Mutual choices existed between Timothy and Kenneth, Kenneth and Michael, Michael and Thomas, Michael and Lynn, Jeff and Joseph, Jeff and Anne, Anne and Joseph, Anne and Susan, Karl and Fred, Susan and Fred, Ginger and Susan, Anne B. and Ginger, Anne B. and Faye, and Ginger and Faye. These students often sit at the same table at lunch and socialize with each other after school.

Patricia is the "isolate" because she did not receive any choices. She was a transfer student and was in the class for only a few days prior to constructing the sociogram.

Except for Patricia, most of the students have known each other for nearly seven years. The students get along well together and appear to enjoy one another's company. The teacher had the opportunity to form a number of groups, using various combinations, with favorable results. In addition, Patricia, shortly thereafter, became an active group member.

Uses

Using the sociometric technique, a teacher may determine class leaders, followers, and isolates. Teachers who desire to develop better classroom relationships will find that the sociogram is a valuable measurement tool.

While many commercially prepared scales of social acceptance and relationships exist, the teacher-made instrument is favored. The sociogram is easy to construct, use, and interpret. It provides the teacher with a pictorial representation of classroom relationships.

Sociograms also may be used by teachers and counselors to improve relationships and to identify students who may need additional help in making friends and developing positive relationships.

A sociogram helps teachers identify those students who are accepted, rejected, or isolated. It does not provide the teacher with information about the reasons the students were selected. If a teacher desires to determine the reasons selections were or were not made, he/she may need to explore the situation. The teacher may need to make observations.

Initially, the teacher described a purpose for having each student select the three students with whom they would like to work in a group project. Therefore, the teacher should use the results of the sociogram for that purpose.

AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

The autobiography may be used to obtain information about a student's past, present, and future. Depending upon the structure and design of the autobiography, a teacher may gather information about his/her students' interests, goals, feelings about self, and other general and specific concerns. An autobiography may be used in most class settings, but is especially useful in English or social studies classes.

An autobiography may reveal information about a student that may enable the teacher to help the student and understand him/her better. For example, an autobiography may describe a student's family structure in such a way that the teacher may be able to determine whether the student has a happy or unhappy home life. In addition, a student may be helped with making career decisions through writing an autobiography which focuses on his/her interests, hobbies, and vocational aspirations.

Sometimes an autobiography may indicate that an individual is having personal problems coping with self or family. The teacher may wish to discuss these concerns with the student and, with the permission of the student, may refer the student to the counselor. Therefore, the classroom teacher, with the help of the counselor, may be able to provide the student with additional help.

Types of Autobiographies

Basically two types of autobiographies are used. The first type is usually referred to as the *unstructured autobiography.* This autobiography is widely used in English classes. An unstructured autobiography simply asks the student to write his/her autobiography. Because it is unstructured, the student is free to choose the areas of his/her life to include and exclude.

A student usually begins this autobiography by telling the reader when and where he/she was born, something about the family, and what he/she does for fun. Because the autobiography allows the student to focus on any area of interest, it may free the student from disclosing sensitive areas. To help eliminate this tendency, a teacher may choose to assign a *structured autobiography.*

The structured autobiography, the second type, usually includes specified areas. A teacher may prepare a list of subtopics and open-ended questions for the student to answer within these subtopics. For example, a teacher may include the following subtopics: my family, my goals, my friends, and what they mean to me. Within these subtopics the teacher may ask the student to respond to structured theories such as: What I Like to do Best with My Family, Reasons Why I Want to be a Doctor, and What My Friends and I do for Fun. In addition, a teacher may wish to limit the autobiography. For example, write a 500 word essay on one of the following topics: My Family and Friends, My Best Vacation, What I Want to be When I Grow Up, and My Biggest Problem. An autobiography may be modified to suit the teacher.

Lastly, the autobiography can provide the teacher and counselor with information that may be used to help the student to adjust to his/her environment. It is important for the teacher to use the information obtained from the autobiography of a student who reveals problem areas to help the student. Sometimes it may be necessary for the teacher to refer such a student to the counselor.

ANECDOTAL RECORDS

An *anecdotal record* is an observational technique commonly used by teachers to collect information about their students. Collected over a period of time, the anecdotal record may provide useful information about a student. Anecdotal records are particularly useful when collecting information about a student who has been referred for a special education class or to an outside agency.

Anecdotal records (Table 5.7) are easy to make and use. Comments made by the recorder may be placed on 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 index cards or on a sheet of paper. It is suggested that index cards be used for anecdotals because they are easy to use, handle, and file.

An anecdotal record should include student's name, the class or teacher's name, date, and comment. Then all a teacher needs to do is to date each comment that is made about a student. The comments may be a word, a sentence, or any number of words and sentences deemed necessary by the teacher. Teachers must remember to report or to describe only the behavior observed and they must avoid making any interpretations.

According to Thorndike and Hagen (1977) there are five features of a good anecdotal record:

1. Provides an accurate description of a specific event.
2. Describes the setting sufficiently to give the event meaning.
3. If it includes interpretation or evaluation by the recorder, this interpretation is separated from the description and its different status is clearly identified.
4. The event described is one that relates to the child's personal development or social interaction.
5. The event described is either representative of the typical behavior of the child or significant because it is strikingly different from his/her usual form of behavior. If unusual behavior for the child, that fact is noted. (p. 525)

One additional point about the five features may be made. The anecdotal record should be objective and the recorder avoids making interpretations or evaluations. The one exception is when the behavior noted is not the student's normal behavior. This fact can then be noted in parentheses next to the comments made by the teacher. Because the enactment of the *Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act* (1974), the teacher must use caution when writing anecdotal comments.

TABLE 5.7
Example of an Anecdotal Record

STUDENT'S NAME ______________________ CLASS ____________

DATE	COMMENT

____
TEACHER'S SIGNATURE

After collecting a number of anecdotal comments, a teacher, counselor, or school psychologist may need to organize these data. In the section following the critical incident technique, a case study which utilizes anecdotal records will be discussed.

Critical Incident Technique

Developed by Flanagan (1950) the critical incident technique is a special type of anecdotal record. This technique describes a situation in narrative form. We asked a graduate class in guidance to write a critical incident. The class was instructed to think of a significant past event which involved them in a helping role. They were asked to describe the situation; what they did in that situation; how did they feel about the situation; and how they feel about the situation now. The anonymous responses were collected. An example of one of the critical incidents is given:

> *One day in the Spring Semester last year one of the students came to my office very upset about a problem at home. She was in tears and wanted to talk to me. She told me that her father and mother were getting a divorce and she was afraid about what was going to happen to her and her sister.*
>
> *I talked to her and told her that getting a divorce was not the end of the world and that because both parents had decided that this was the best thing for all concerned then perhaps it was for her welfare as well. I also told her that it did not mean that her parents loved her any less and she must not blame herself.*
>
> *I felt very concerned and very sorry for this child. I recommended professional help for her and her family.*
>
> *I feel at this time that I did the proper thing. The situation was worked out completely with the family and all is well and happy. The student has adjusted nicely.*

The critical incident technique is a complete description of the situation with an explanation of what the person did. Anecdotal records are brief comments that describe a particular behavior. Both may be improved through practice; however, the anecdotal record is the one more frequently used in the schools.

THE CASE STUDY

Shertzer and Stone (1981) defined the case study as "the collection and report of all available evidence—social, psychological, environmental, vocational-that explains the individual, including an analysis of the interrelationships among the various data" (p. 294).

From the definition, one may conclude that the case study is comprehensive and time consuming. Many sources are used to gather the information contained in the case study. Some of the major sources used are the student's cumulative folder, rating scales, checklists, anecdotal records, observations, test results, health records, sociometric methods, and parents.

A case study is initiated when a teacher, counselor, administrator, or parent believes that a student may need to be placed in an exceptional class, is not achieving as he/she should, or is constantly fighting with other students. In such instances the student may be referred to the counselor. The teacher may indicate the reason for referral either in writing or orally to the counselor. If the counselor believes that the student needs additional help, he/she may refer the student to the school psychologist.

The counselor working with the school psychologist begins the case study by collecting data. Before a student meets with the school psychologist, the counselor sends a *Permission to Test Form* and a *Student History Form* home to the parents. The parents are requested to sign the permission form and to complete the history form as soon as possible. Any questions or concerns that a parent may have may be answered by the counselor either by phone or in person.

Once the parent permission and history forms are returned, the counselor collects the needed information. Test and nontest methods are used to gather information about the student.

Prior to writing the case study a documented referral folder is prepared. The referral contains spaces reserved for standardized test scores, vision, hearing, and speech tests results, interventions attempted (e.g., moving seat or special tutoring), parent conferences, and reasons for the referral. In addition, the psychological folder may contain work samples, observations, rating scales, check lists, and anecdotal records.

When all the information is gathered, the psychological folder is sent to the school psychologist who then determines whether additional data are needed. The school psychologist meets with the student and may administer standardized intelligence tests such as the *Stanford Binet* or *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC)* and/or projective tests such as the *Bender Gestalt* or the *Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)*. After all data are gathered, the school psychologist completes the case study.

The purpose for writing a case study is to organize, summarize, and analyze this enormous amount of data. Once this is completed, the school psychologist can determine whether placement in a special education class or referral to another professional such as psychologist or psychiatrist is needed. Whatever course of action is decided upon, everyone involved must place the welfare of the student as top priority. An example of a case study is provided in Table 5.8.

Case Conference or Staffing

Once the case study is written, a case conference or staffing is called to determine the best course of action to take.

The counselor is often responsible for setting up the staffing. First, he/she determines a date and sends a form to the student's parents informing them of the date, time, place, and identifying who will be attending the staffing. Parents are requested to sign the form and indicate whether or not they will be able to attend. If the date selected is not convenient, then the parent is requested to indicate a convenient date. Next, the counselor informs the school psychologist, principal, and teachers of the staffing date, time, and place.

During the staffing or case conference, all data are explained to members by the school psychologists. Any questions or concerns by the parents, teachers, counselor, or principal are answered and discussed.

Once results are explained, the school psychologist, together with the other members plan a course of action. This action may include placing the student in a special education class, referring the student to an outside agency, or keeping the student in his/her present class with suggestions which the teacher may use.

TABLE 5.8
Illustration of a Case Study

PSYCHOLOGICAL REPORT

Report No. P-385
Date: 4/7/83
Psychologist J. D. Smith

Name of Student: John Doe
Birthdate: 3/6/66
Age: 7-1 Sex: Male Grade: 2
Address: 739 Any Street
New York, NY
Phone: 387-4127
Parent: James & Dora Doe

Submitted to Eligibility and Placement Committee

REASON FOR REPORT:

John was referred due to restless behavior. He cannot complete his work, constantly asks to go to the restroom, and states that he does not like school.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

John is a seven-year, one-month-old boy, who resides with his father and mother. The parents reported the following information: John displays lack of self-esteem, concentration, and appears to dislike school. The problem manifested itself when John could not relate to his peers in kindergarten. Mr. & Mrs. Doe discipline John with reprimands and spanking. These measurements do not appear to work.

PSYCHOLOGICAL DATA:

ASSESSMENT: The following tests were administered:

Name of Test	Date
Bender Gestalt	3/15/83
Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children	3/15/83
Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude	3/16/83
Wepman Auditory Discrimination Tests	3/16/83
Thematic Apperception Test	3/16/83
Wide Range Achievement Test	3/17/83
Sentence Completion	3/17/83

TEST RESULTS:

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised

Verbal I.Q.	107
Performance I.Q.	97
Full Scale I.Q.	103

Wide Range Achievement Test

	Grade Equivalent	Standard Score	Percentile
Reading Recognition	2.8	100	50
Spelling	1.4	84	15
Arithmetic	1.7	98	44

TEST	AGE	INTERPRETATION
Bender Gestalt	4-8	Below 70%
Detroit		
Test 4 (Association)	6-3	
Test 6 (Memory)	3-6	Below 70%
Test 9 (Memory)	7-0	
Test 13 (Memory)	5-0	Below 70%
Test 16 (Memory)	11-0	
Wepman (Auditory)	6-9	

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Intellectual Test Results

John's level of intellectual potential falls within the normal range. Sub-Test scores revealed little scatter. However, there was significant strength in comprehension with a score of 15 to an apparent weakness on Object Assembly.

Academic Test Results

John scored below the 20 percentile on spelling. He does not appear to have mastered the basic sound/symbol relationships for spelling on his grade level. Reading and arithmetic were at grade level.

Auditory and Visual Discrimination

On the visual discrimination (Bender Gestalt), John is performing below the 70 percentile. His ability to visually discriminate and reproduce motorically shapes and forms appears poorly developed for his age.

Social/Emotional Development

Projectives (TAT) suggest that John is a sad child who views his environment as threatening. He seems to see authority figures as punitive and thus seeks recognition and approval from anyone who will give him the attention he seems to desperately need. His struggle to create compatible interpersonal relationships may result in emotional tendencies.

Summary

This report suggests that John is functioning in the normal range of intelligence, but is evidencing significant academic deficits. His performance indicates that John is a sad child who seeks nurturance, recognition, and acceptance.

John is a learning disabled child and his case is referred to the Eligibility and Placement Committee for an appropriate educational program.

NOTE. Format based on outline in *Psychological Report Writing* (pp. 127-128) by J. Hollis and P. Donn, 1979, Muncie, IN: Accelerated Development. Copyright 1979 by Accelerated Development.

At the conclusion of the staffing, all members present sign a form indicating whether or not they agree to the placement or findings. If additional follow-up is needed, it is discussed at this time. For example, a child who is placed in a special education class must have his/her records reviewed every year and re-evaluated every three years. A student who is to remain in his/her present class would usually meet again with the school psychologist, counselor, and teacher to determine if improvements occurred. Chapter 8 includes a more detailed discussion of staffing procedures associated with "special students".

SUMMARY

In this chapter are some nontest techniques which a classroom teacher may use. Included were a description, an example, and an application of cumulative records, observations, rating scales, sociograms, anecdotals, checklists, autobiographies, case studies, and case conferences.

Nontest techniques may provide the classroom teacher with information about a student which can be used to help the student overcome his/her problems and concerns. This help may enable the student to become a more fully functioning member of society.

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CHAPTER 6

SELF-CONCEPT AND DISCIPLINE

The purpose of this chapter is to focus on two specific areas involving student-teacher interactions: self-concept and discipline. The two are viewed as concepts closely related and will be discussed in this relationship. Also included is a brief discussion of "processes" in the classroom and the importance of recognizing, developing, and communicating understanding of various processes in student-teacher interactions.

Self-concept is one of those global terms which is sometimes difficult to grasp in all its broad interpretations. *Self-concept is defined as* *the total of all qualities that an individual attributes to self.* It is an individual's way of saying "this is I." It represents an individual's physical, social, and emotional worlds and how an individual responds to challenges and feedback which help shape the view of self. The self-concept is determined by answers to such questions as: Who am I? What will significant persons in my life think if I do so-and-so? Why don't I feel like other persons my age? What is the purpose of my life? *Teacher effectiveness with students depends on how self-concepts are developed and maintained.*

Questions such as "Who are you?" lead to other questions. But, which "you" is the student using in responding? Should an individual describe the private picture of what he/she is really like? What he/she fears he/she is like? The ideal self? The bad self? The self pictured by others? If so, which others? What about the different ways the individual thinks of self at different times? These questions illustrate the necessity of distinguishing among the selves because they seem to have independent meanings, are elicited in different situations, and have different consequences because of feedback from significant others.

Snygg and Combs (1949) identified three parts of the self: the self as object, the self as doer, and the self as observer. It is from these classifications that some authors use the term *"self-concept" as the "object"* or perceptions an individual holds of self. The term *"self-esteem" is then used as the "observer" part of the individual where the individual places a value or judgment on self.* McCandless (1961) described six qualities of the self-concept: accuracy, clarity, complexity, consistency, flexibility, and self-acceptance.

Fitts (1965) presented eight subidentities as part of the self-concept.

1. *Identity.* This is how the individual views self. It is the individual's way of saying, "This is what I am."

2. *Self-satisfaction.* This also might be called self-acceptance because it includes how the individual feels about the way self is viewed.

3. *Behavior.* Here the individual reflects on feelings about the way he/she acts.

4. *Physical Self.* The individual presents feelings about "body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality."

5. *Moral-ethical Self.* This part of the self-concept reflects one's feelings about being a "bad" or "good" person.

6. *Personal Self.* This component of the self-concept involves the individual's feelings of personal worth and adequacy. This is an appraisal of personal worth apart from the individual's relationships with others.

7. *Family Self.* This is how the individual feels about self in relationships with family members or other significant persons.

8. *Social Self.* This involves one's perceptions of worth as related to other persons in general.

Another significant part of self-concept is *self-disclosure,* or the degree to which an individual reveals self to others. There is some degree of freedom, openness, and trusting involved in self-disclosure. Self-disclosure involves all of the eight subidentities previously discussed because it concerns awareness of human behavior as well as perceptions of self and feedback from others as one is viewed in interpersonal relations.

JOHARI WINDOW

The Johari Window (Luft, 1970) is one way of examining the concept of self-disclosure. The Johari Window (Table 6.1) takes its name from the first names of the two men who developed the model: Joseph Luft and Harry Ingram. The window is actually a series of different windows or panes, and is read as a matrix.

TABLE 6.1
JOHARI WINDOW

		SELF	
		KNOWN	UNKNOWN
OTHERS	KNOWN	PUBLIC (open and free discussion, no threat, appropriate topics of discussion with most anyone.)	BLIND (others see things about which we are unaware, areas of vulnerability.)
	UNKNOWN	HIDDEN (private person, requires self-disclosure, requires risk to share.)	UNCONSCIOUS (the unknown, presumed to exist, revealed in dreams, untapped resources.)

NOTE. From *Of Human Interaction* (p. 13) by J. Luft, 1984, Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield Publishing. Copyright 1984 by Mayfield Publishing. Reprinted by permission.

The four panes in the window in Table 6.1 represent significant characteristics about an individual in relationship with another individual or group of individuals. The four areas are public, blind, hidden, and unconscious.

1. *Public.* This is the area known to self and known to others. Limited only by what one is willing to reveal within a given period of time and under a given set of circumstances.

2. *Blind.* This area is known to others and unknown to self. In this area the individual is unaware of certain characteristics about self that are fairly obvious to others. The individual remains unaware until capable of receiving objective feedback concerning such characteristics.

3. *Hidden.* Information is known to self and unknown to others. This pane includes personal information about one's self that is not generally revealed to others. Such information remains private until the individual is willing to self-disclose.

4. *Unconscious.* This area is unknown to self and to others. Information in this area may be revealed under stress, through dreams, or by hypnosis. In this area is where much of an individual's potential can be said to exist.

The window can be applied to any individual. However, the relationship of the size of each pane will vary from individual to individual. Public and blind areas will be larger than hidden and unconscious areas for a person who is open and quick to self-disclose. For one who is closed and keeps feelings to self, public and blind areas will be small and hidden and unconscious areas will be large.

Teachers who establish a climate for open and honest discussions will find their students more apt to self-disclose thoughts, feelings, values, and opinions. In situations where students feel threatened they will probably not feel free to reveal themselves. We emphasize the need for feedback in the process. Unless persons are willing to provide feedback, and unless the feedback is heard, behaviors or attitudes will not change.

MASLOW HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Maslow (1970) placed self-concept needs, among which he included self-esteem, among other needs of the individual. His concept of *self-actualization* also includes much of what has been discussed under the heading of self-concept. In looking at self-actualization, one can divide the total identity into actual, potential, aspired, and ideal selves. The *actual self* is the total pattern of characteristics in terms of which the student perceives self at a given moment in time. The *potential self* is the total pattern which might be attained if all capabilities are developed to their fullest. The *aspired self* is the total pattern of attributes one perceives self as attempting to attain. The *ideal self* is the total pattern of characteristics one would credit to self if able to realize an ultimate standard of perfection.

Maslow took the position that needs can be placed in a hierarchy from the most basic needs to higher order needs. In Figure 6.1 are presented Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

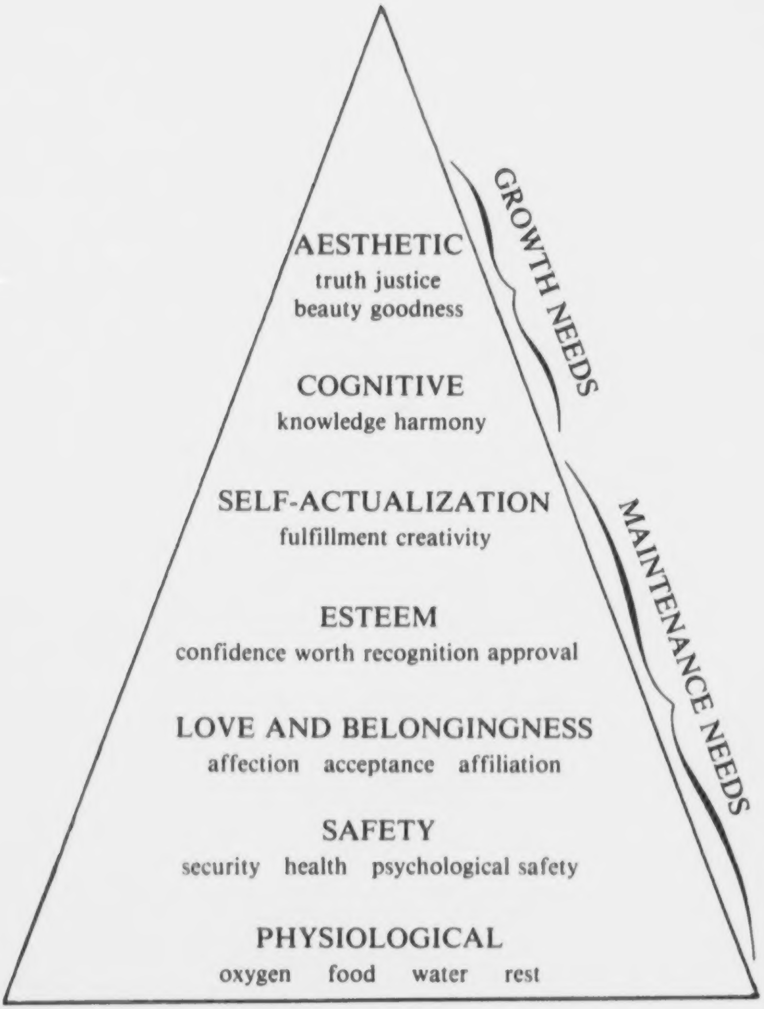
AESTHETIC
truth justice
beauty goodness
COGNITIVE
knowledge harmony
SELF-ACTUALIZATION
fulfillment creativity
ESTEEM
confidence worth recognition approval
LOVE AND BELONGINGNESS
affection acceptance affiliation
SAFETY
security health psychological safety
PHYSIOLOGICAL
oxygen food water rest
GROWTH NEEDS
MAINTENANCE NEEDS

Figure 6.1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

NOTE. Figure based upon information in *Motivation and Personality* (2nd ed.) (pp. 80-106) by A. H. Maslow, 1970, New York: Harper and Row. Copyright 1970 by Harper and Row. Adapted by permission.

The most basic needs are those characterized as *physiological*. These needs must be satisfied to maintain life. The next level involves physical and psychological *safety* needs. This involves living in a nonthreatening environment where one is free from fear. The third level in the hierarchy involves *reciprocal affection*—to have family and friends and belong to a group. This is followed by the need for *esteem*, or to hold a high opinion of oneself and have the respect, admiration, and confidence of others.

Once these four basic maintenance needs are satisfied, the motivation of the individual is then toward *self-actualization*. Maslow (1970) identified characteristics of self-actualizing persons as having the following attributes: clear perception and acceptance of reality; ability to recognize and accept personal limitations as well as the limitations of others; interest in improving discrepancies between what is and what ought to be; spontaneous; problem oriented; detached, reserved, dignified, calm, and independent of the environment; gain satisfaction from within themselves; experience wonder, awe, and an appreciation of the mysteries of life; identify with human beings in general, and have few deep, profound interpersonal relationships; democratic character structure; focus equally on ends and means; possess an unhostile, philosophical sense of humor; and they are creative and resist conformity. Maslow felt that perhaps less than one percent of the population might attain self-actualization.

The next need in the hierarchy is the *cognitive* need or the desire to know and understand. The final need is an *aesthetic* need or a need for order, symmetry, and closure. It is not clear if these final three needs are actually a part of the hierarchy or if in fact they are interactive. It appears that some persons may achieve self-actualization and develop themselves in the cognitive or aesthetic realms while others may actually use their cognitive and/or aesthetic interests as a part of their self-actualizing tendencies.

This hierarchy of needs has important implications for teachers. Teachers must understand the importance of fulfilling basic needs, both for themselves and their students before the teaching-learning process can be expected to be effective. Teachers also must understand the important role they play in the lives of all students who need attention, affection, belonging, and a sense of achievement. In fact, *teachers should have as an instructional goal to promote the self-actualization of each student.*

POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

Coopersmith (1967) provided the following description of persons with a high self-concept:

> Persons high in their own estimation approach tasks and persons with the expectation that they will be well received and successful. They have confidence in their perceptions and judgments and believe that they can bring their efforts to a favorable resolution. Their favorable self-attitudes lead them to accept their own opinions and place credence and trust in their reactions and conclusions. This permits them to follow their own judgments when there is a difference of opinion and also permits them to consider novel ideas. The trust in self that accompanies feelings of worthiness is likely to provide the conviction that one is correct and the courage to express those convictions. The attitudes and expectations that lead the individual with high self-esteem to greater social independence and creativity also lead him to more assertive and vigorous social actions. They are more likely to be participants than listeners in group discussions, they report less difficulty in forming friendships, and they will express opinions even when they know these opinions may meet with a hostile reception. Among the factors that underlie and contribute to these actions are their lack of self-consciousness and their lack of preoccupation with personal problems. Lack of self-consciousness permits them to present their ideas in a full and forthright fashion; lack of self-preoccupation permits them to consider and examine external issues. (pp. 70-71)

In contrast, Coopersmith (1967) described a person with a low self-concept thusly:

> The picture of the individual with low self-esteem emerges from these results is markedly different. These persons lack trust in themselves and are apprehensive about expressing unpopular or unusual ideas. They do not wish to expose themselves, anger others, or perform deeds that would attract attention. They are likely to live in the shadows of a social group, listening rather than participating, and preferring the solitude of withdrawal above the interchange of participation. Among the factors that contribute to the withdrawal of those low in self-esteem are their marked self-consciousness and preoccupation with inner problems. This great awareness of themselves distracts them from attending to other persons and issues and is likely to result in a morbid preoccupation with their difficulties. The effect is to limit their social intercourse and thus decrease the possibilities of friendly and supportive relationships. (p. 71)

Swayze (1980) described three causes of low or negative self-concepts: overprotection, domination, and neglect. The adult who is overprotective communicates to the child that he/she is incapable of completing a task without help from the adult. The adult who dominates communicates to the child that he/she is untrustworthy in addition to being incapable. The child who is neglected must resort to negative behavior to get attention from adults. In all three causes of negative self-concept, the child feels humiliated and is likely to strike back with aggressive behavior.

Readers are cautioned not to use these descriptions to the disadvantage of students. The self-fulfilling prophecy (see Chapter 8 for discussion of self-fulfilling prophecy) operates on the self-concept just as it operates on achievement. Children probably will behave as they are expected to behave. With this in mind teachers must be aware of what their expectations will do to student feelings about themselves. Therefore teachers must understand that the child with low self-concept characteristics is vulnerable to teacher behaviors which further decrease self-concept. Teachers must communicate to such students, both verbally and nonverbally, that they are persons of worth and importance, both as individuals and as a part of the class. Next to the home, the school is probably the most important determinant of self-concept. School personnel should work to build the child's feelings of self worth, feelings of autonomy, and skills in dealing with expectations of self, parents, and teachers. The teacher should think of self-concept as a subject for study throughout the school year.

Phillips and Zigler (1980) described how children develop positive self-concepts through curiosity, independence, pride in their accomplishments, and the ability to recover from failure and frustrating situations. They presented some guidelines for teachers who wish to contribute to children's positive self-concepts.

1. Positive self-concept is expressed differently at various stages of development. This expression should be kept in mind when planning interventions such that children are reassured of their capabilities and self-worth and are not challenged to attain unreasonable goals. Teachers are reminded that aspirations that are unrealistically high lead to frequent failure and to a low self-concept. Aspirations that are so low that they are guaranteed to avoid failure also lead to a low self-concept because accomplishments are unimpressive and so far below potential that the student is depressed.

2. Teachers must transmit feelings of acceptance and unconditional positive regard toward children. This is accomplished by communicating verbally and physically these feelings. The teacher works to create a climate in which all children feel special and useful. The teacher who fosters a positive environment responds to the needs of each child. Teaching material is matched to the child's ability and interest. Comparisons between children are not made because the teacher recognizes the uniqueness of each child.

3. The environment should be predictable and responsive so that the child learns how to attain personal goals. This includes not only the physical environment but the social environment as well. Such an environment contains clearly defined standards and rules.

4. The child is given support in an attempt to rid him/her of unacceptable behaviors. Positive behaviors are rewarded while restraint, denial of participation in desirable activities, and separation from instigating incident or situation are used for undesirable behaviors. Teachers avoid corporal punishment, degrading remarks, or withdrawal of love as consequences for undesirable behaviors.

5. Children are provided an opportunity to help plan activities and to establish class rules. This must be appropriate to their ability to make decisions. This can be accomplished in a classroom discussion where all children feel free to voice their opinions and express their beliefs.

6. Challenges are provided which are difficult for children but are within their potential to grasp. Children benefit by seeing themselves do something they doubted they could do. Ample time is allowed to insure some degree of success. *Efforts are praised as well as accomplishments.*

7. Constructive coping skills to deal with failure and frustration are taught to children. The teacher can provide a constructive, supportive explanation as to why the child failed and can help children accept the inevitability of some failures and mistakes. Teachers should be encouraged to help children learn how to cope with their successes and their failures.

8. Opportunities are to be provided for the development of self-reliance and self-initiative. The procedure to accomplish this goal is to first, help students develop reasonable, realistic goals. Second, help students select those concrete actions necessary to reach goals. Third, a goal should be divided into subgoals and an appropriate timetable developed so that each student can see progress toward the goal. Fourth, the goal must be defined clearly enough for each student to know when it is met. This encourages students to rely on their own perceptions.

The preceding list in a substantial manner, covers the necessary components for teachers who desire to have positive influence on the self-concept of students. Several suggestions helpful in the development of a positive self-concept may be added to the preceding list. Readers might conclude that these suggestions which follow are ones which are more informal and indirect as they relate to positive self-concept development.

Students need to be taught to communicate verbally and nonverbally. This skill involves communicating their thoughts and feelings to others while learning to interpret behaviors of others. Too often students interpret nonverbal behaviors as indicators of something negative about themselves when those behaviors had nothing to do with them. Assertiveness training can be helpful to students who are learning how to communicate with and provide feedback to others.

Help students learn differences between thoughts and actions. Many people interpret what someone thinks about them with the same intensity as they interpret what someone actually does to them. While we believe that what one thinks determines how one acts, also recognize that the receiver decides how to respond to thoughts and actions of others.

Students need to learn that complicated questions do not have simple answers. Questions students raise are complicated, difficult to answer, and involve much more than appears on the surface. Students who experience acceptance and positive regard come to believe a teacher is genuinely interested in providing answers. Teachers who do not communicate caring will be perceived as evasive and perhaps even dishonest.

Most literature on self-concept describes independence and trust in self as characteristics of a positive self-concept. Students need to learn when to trust others, especially adults, and when to seek adult support. Both the ability to recognize limitations as well as the ability to request assistance are manifestations of a positive self-concept.

TEACHER'S SELF-CONCEPT

Teachers' feelings toward themselves have a tremendous bearing on their acceptance of students. A warm, supportive, empathic environment is directly related to high self-concepts among students in such an environment. Purkey (1978) concluded that teachers who understand and accept themselves have a greater capacity to understand and to accept their students. This self-acceptance seems to transcend teaching methods, skills, or techniques. Spaulding (1964) found a positive relationship between teacher self-concept and academic achievement. Students in classrooms where teachers were calm, supportive, and accepting had higher self-concepts while students who had dominating, threatening, or sarcastic teachers had more negative self-concepts. Other studies have found strong relationships between students' self-concepts and their academic achievement (Brookover, Thomas, & Paterson, 1964; Epps, 1969; Rosenberg & Simmons, 1973). Likewise, Reckless, Dinitz, and Kay (1957) found a significant relationship between low self-concept and an inclination toward juvenile delinquency as well as low school achievement.

Despite these findings, Scheirer and Kraut (1979), in a review of the literature linking self-concept and achievement, concluded that such a relationship is not causal. They went on to caution educators against focusing too much attention on enhancement of self-concept if the goal is toward improving academic achievement.

The self-concept of students is affected by many factors but none probably as significant as the self-concept of the teacher. Because teachers spend more time with students than even the parents, teachers provide models of self-acceptance and self-worth. Teachers who demonstrate positive self-concepts also provide encouragement and support to students who are developing expressions of their uniqueness. A teacher with a good self-concept will not be threatened by a student who is uniquely different. Because teacher self-concept is so important, teachers need opportunities to focus on their own mental health. Chapter 13 is devoted to special problems of teachers. At this point, one noteworthy proposal is presented for use in helping teachers who desire to develop a more positive self-concept. This proposal was presented by Wrenn (1980) who identified three elements.

The first element is to recognize one's own personal qualities. This recognition may be accomplished by learning to admit successes and learning to accept compliments from others. Too often persons dismiss a real personal strength or a real compliment because the person does not know how to respond to one who offers praise. A simple "thank you" or "I'm glad you noticed" is sufficient. Also an essential component for maintaining positive self-concept is to have a "significant other" in whom one can confide, with whom one can share, and from whom one can receive support.

The second element is to develop a positive outlook about life and positive beliefs about the nature of man and the nature of the universe which provides the foundation for forming beliefs about a specific student. Explore beliefs and values with other persons and learn how these beliefs and values determine behaviors. Christenson (1977) identified some values he believed all persons can accept (Table 6.2). His list may be useful as one examines personal values and beliefs in the process of developing a personal philosophy of life.

Not only are these values significant for teachers to accept, they seem to be among the things students should understand and accept. To accomplish this goal, teachers should incorporate value lessons into the regular subject matter.

The third element in Wrenn's (1980) presentation involves demonstrating a sense of caring for others. Once a person has developed a sense of self-worth to share with others so that they too may rapidly move toward feelings of self-worth. The communication techniques discussed in Chapter 3 will be helpful in this area. The ability to communicate positive feelings to students may indeed be the single most important function in teaching.

This caring and communication has been discussed by Frey and Young (1979) when they presented their ideas which have proven effective in helping students meet their psychological needs. (See Table 6.3.)

TABLE 6.2
Values We Can All Accept

1. The most important thing in life is the kind of persons we are becoming, the qualities of character and moral behavior we are developing.
2. Self-discipline, defined as the strength to do what we know we ought to do even when we would rather not, is important in our lives.
3. Being trustworthy, so that when we say we will or will not do something we can be believed, is important.
4. Telling the truth, especially when it hurts to do so, is essential to trust, to self-respect, and to social health. Unless we can tell the truth when it is painful to us and seemingly injurious to our short-run interests, we are not truthful persons.
5. Being honest in all aspects of life, including our business practices and our relations with government, is important.
6. Doing work well, whatever it may be, and the satisfactions that come from this attitude, are important.
7. Personal courage and personal responsibility in the face of group pressures to do what, deep down, one disbelieves in, are important.
8. Using honorable means, those that respect the rights of others, in seeking our individual and collective ends is important.
9. "Can it survive the sunlight?" is one of the most reliable tests of dubious conduct in private as well as in public life.
10. It is important to have the courage to say, "I'm sorry, I was wrong."
11. Recognizing inconspicuous, unsung people who have admirable qualitites and live worthwhile lives is important.
12. Good sportsmanship should be understood and celebrated. Winning is *not* all-important.
13. It is necessary to get facts straight and to hear both sides before drawing conclusions adverse to a person, group, or institution.
14. It is important to listen, really listen, to persons with whom we are having disputes or difficulties.
15. Treating others as we would wish to be treated is one of the best guides to human conduct. This principle applies to persons of every class, race, nationality, and religion.
16. Another good guide is this: If everyone in comparable circumstances acted as you propose to act, would it be for the best?
17. No man is an island; behavior that may seem to be of purely private concern often affects those about us and society itself.
18. Adversity is the best test of our maturity and of our mettle.
19. Respect for law is essential to a healthy society, but responsible, nonviolent civil disobedience can be compatible with our ethical heritage.
20. It is important to acquire respect for the democratic values of free speech, a free press, freedom of assembly, freedom of religion, and due process of law. We should recognize that this principle applies to speech we abhor, groups we dislike, persons we despise.

NOTE. From "McGuffrey's Ghost and Moral Education Today" by R. M. Christenson, 1977, *Phi Delta Kappan, 58*, p. 738. Copyright 1977 by Phi Delta Kappa. Reprinted by permission.

TABLE 6.3
Helping Students Meet Psychological Needs

Caring

1. Greet students at the door, in the hallway, or in the cafeteria.
2. Listen to students by focusing, clarifying, and accepting.
3. Speak to the shy person with a friendly smile.
4. Touch students on the arm or shoulder while listening; this shows concern and caring.
5. Know and use student's preferred name.
6. Learn something personal about each student.
7. Send "I care-o-grams" to students.
8. Have teachers write positive comments on papers in addition to grades.
9. Maintain more personal contact after school hours in non-curriculum areas.

Understanding

1. Notice nonverbal indicators that the student is happy, sad, glad, tired, etc., and communicate these observations.
2. Have students develop autobiographies around five important events in their lives.
3. Place success within reasonable reach for every student. Know what the student can do and what is necessary to learn before giving more difficult tasks.
4. Give students the opportunity to air their views or share their hidden agendas.
5. Make positive personal contact with the home.
6. Be willing to listen and *hear* students.
7. Have students interview each other.
8. Allow students to interview you.
9. Allow more sharing of feeling words: "Right now I feel..."
10. Use caring and feeling words in the classroom and office.
11. Talk personally with each student during the year and get to know at least one thing special about each person.
12. Eat lunch or share lunch with a student.
13. Reverse roles with students.
14. Show that mistakes are legitimate.

Identifying

1. Have lower ability students tutor lower grade childen.
2. Encourage students to write special goals for themselves for the next day, and follow through on these goals.
3. Provide for student self-evaluation of their own work and plans for future growth.
4. Encourage students to keep journals of ideas, successes, etc.
5. Provide space for students to display their work.
6. Have students create values crests and share with others.
7. Make pictures or profiles of students and have other students write positive comments about them.
8. Announce student achievements on the school public address system.

Recognizing

1. Let students choose someone to work with, and have them share their partner's success with the teacher.
2. Send notes home to parents when students do something well. Do this especially with "problem" students.
3. Find one positive strength or interest in a "problem" student, and give recognition for this, as well as provide opportunities to extend it.
4. Help older students plan learning experiences, make books, etc., for younger children.
5. Have a "teach-in" where students can teach other students things they are especially interested in or skillful at.
6. Try to build on positive ideas you find in a student's work and relate this to previous work when possible.
7. Have teachers identify students on their birthdays.
8. Allow students with birthdays during the summer to pick a date during the school year for personal recognition.
9. Give recognition to individuals as well as the whole class using behavior modification rewards identified and selected by the students.
10. Use teacher assistants.
11. Praise student efforts.
12. Recognize the "Aha" moments and help the student get "in touch" with feelings at that moment.

NOTE. From "Self-concept Continuum for Understanding Student Behavior" by D. Frey and J. A. Young, 1979, *NASSP Bulletin, 63,* pp. 31-32. Copyright 1979 by National Association of Secondary School Principals. Reprinted by permission.

The importance of self-concept development should not be underestimated. The way a student feels about self will affect every area of school life. Students will behave in a manner consistent with how they feel about themselves. Certainly, the self-concept is a central factor in student discipline.

BEHAVIOR AND DISCIPLINE

Glasser (1969) distinguished between punishment and discipline by characterizing punishment as imposed by someone, expressive of authority, based on retribution or revenge, and essentially negative and short-term without sustained personal involvement. Discipline, on the other hand, is based on natural or logical consequences expressive of rules which must be learned in order to function adequately. In discipline, the responsibility for behavior is assumed by the individual and emphasizes teaching ways to act that will result in more successful behavior. Furthermore, punishment is easiest and more expedient while discipline is difficult and time consuming.

Adler (Dreikurs, 1971; Grunwald & McAbee, 1985) suggested that children have four goals of misbehavior: attention, power, revenge, or feelings of inadequacy. The approach recommended for dealing with these problems is to first, help the student understand the goal of misbehavior. Second, the teacher should stop making misbehavior worthwhile to the student. Third, the teacher should look for ways to "encourage" the student to succeed in positive activities.

Lasley (1981) observed two junior high schools for six weeks in an attempt to determine the nature of student misbehavior, the teacher's response to the misbehavior, and the reaction of the student to the teacher. His observations lead him to conclude that student misbehavior falls into two categories: coping behaviors and challenging behaviors. *Coping behaviors* appear to be reactions to boredom (talking, writing notes, or pounding desk) or designed to achieve peer acceptance (smoking, fighting, or indicating willingness to fight). *Challenging behaviors* were those which were either smarting (confronting the teacher verbally or making satirical remarks) or ignoring (disregard for teachers). Effective teacher management techniques fell into two categories: nonresponding and faceworking. By ignoring the misbehavior the teacher appeared to indicate a willingness to forgive. This action also allowed students an opportunity to develop self-discipline. These behaviors which were ignored were all minor violations of rules of good conduct. Faceworking helped students save face by treating the misbehavior as appropriate rather than as inappropriate. Such a response helps protect the student self-concept. Ignoring and faceworking can be effective only when the teacher is extremely aware of the difference between real and perceived discipline problems (Thompson, 1976). A *real discipline problem* is one student infringing on the rights of the teacher or other students. In a *perceived discipline problem* no rights are violated and only the teacher perceives the behavior to be a problem. For the teacher, perceived discipline problems are of no less significance than are real problems. However, the teacher needs to have this distinction clear and to be able to avoid confrontations with students where no real problem exists.

RELATING SELF-CONCEPT TO DISCIPLINE

If one accepts the proposition that self-concept is directly related to discipline, it follows that the better the self-concept the fewer discipline problems. A better self-concept is indicated in students who have teachers who have close caring relations with their students. Close caring relations are characterized by honesty, acceptance, empathy, respect, and trust. These concepts were discussed in Chapter 3. The teacher who demonstrates these qualities should have a positive self-concept which leads to better attitudes about students. Such an attitude leads to better self-concepts in students.

Goldsmith (1981) identified some significant components of an effective school or classroom discipline code. When rules are developed, they should be written to avoid ambiguity or arbitrariness and the individual rights of students should be respected. Effective rules are based on fair procedures which are flexible enough to provide for the individuality of students. While rules need to be flexible, they should be administered in a firm, consistent, evenhanded, and uniform manner. The consequences of misbehavior should fit the offense and the lesser consequence should be used.

Other guidelines, consistent with a recognition of the relationship between self-concept and discipline, which are important for a pleasant learning environment are listed. These guidelines are not listed in order of significance.

1. **Be the central figure in the classroom.** The teacher lays the foundation for successful educational experiences void of discipline problems. The teacher should be enthusiastic about teaching, use student-centered instruction, and emphasize self-respect in the classroom. Lessons should be designed to avoid boredom. The teacher should involve parents and students in decision making while recognizing that the teacher is ultimately responsible for the classroom climate. The practice of allowing students an opportunity to air "grips" should prove helpful in meeting students' needs to have some voice in classroom management.

2. **Set a good example.** One of the ways to teach self-discipline is through example. Students, especially in the lower grades, imitate

their teachers. Teachers should endeavor to demonstrate honesty, acceptance, empathy, respect, and trust so that students will have an opportunity to model these qualities.

3. **Make the school experiences interesting, challenging, and exciting.** Teachers should arrange for successes for all students. Successful students are most likely to have incentive to attempt new tasks, will feel capable, and will have better self-concepts.

4. **Make students feel important, unique, worthwhile and invited** (Purkey, 1978). This guideline is directly related to Guideline 3. Important to the accomplishment of this goal is to correct students privately and individually. This prevents students from losing face in the presence of their peers. While it may be necessary to delay talking with a student, teachers also should remember that any correcting is to be done as close as possible to the positive basis.

5. **Deal with improvement of student behavior from a positive basis.** Instead of reminding student of misbehavior, teachers remind the student of preferred behavior. Teachers can help shape behaviors by regularly reinforcing positive behaviors.

6. **Be aware of nonverbal messages communicated to students.** Mehrabian (1981) concluded that of the total liking behavior communicated, seven percent is verbal, thirty-eight percent is vocal (tone, rate, volume and pitch) and fifty-five percent is nonverbal (facial and body language). With this recognition of the impact of nonverbal messages, teachers should concentrate on congruence between verbal and nonverbal messages and focus on what they may be communicating nonverbally.

7. **Establish parameters for expected behavior in the classroom.** Teachers are to be firm, yet fair and honest in dealing with students. Students are to know and understand the limits of appropriate behavior in the classroom.

8. **Give attention to the behavior, the symptom, and the possible cause(s).** Teachers should be aware of symptoms of lowered self-concept such as unhappiness, aggression, withdrawal, insecurity, short attention span, quick to anger, lacking motivation, reading considerably below grade level, and easily upset over failures. If these behaviors are observed, they may be symptoms of a lowered

self-concept such as unhappiness, aggression, withdrawal, insecurity, short attention span, quick to anger, lacking motivation, reading considerably below grade level, and easily upset over failures. If these behaviors are observed, they not only may be symptoms of a lowered self-concept but also causes of misbehavior.

9. **When inappropriate behavior occurs, isolate the situation and define the problem.** Ask the following questions: What is the problem? What is the cause? Who is involved? What strategies might be useful to improve the behavior? Make an attempt to see each situation individually without generalizing the behavior to other situations.

10. **Be clear in directions and expectations.** Make efforts to have students take responsibility for their behavior. If the expectations are clear, little room is left for students to make excuses.

11. **Separate the person from the behavior.** Communicate to students your unconditional respect and acceptance of them as persons even when their behavior may be inappropriate. Respond to the specific behavior rather than to the person when unacceptable behavior occurs.

12. **Communicate with parents about their children.** Involve parents in significant school decisions about their children. Communicate to parents that you want and need their support and that you welcome their contributions.

13. **Read about effective discipline practices and classroom management techniques.** Plan to attend professional meetings, conferences, or workshops where interaction can take place with colleagues. Develop a list of personal practices and techniques. Develop a personal support system among friends both within and outside of school.

14. **Remember that some students will be discipline problems despite your best efforts.** Learn about referral sources in the school where students might be sent when all available classroom resources and techniques have been exhausted.

The six-step problem-solving method proposed by Gordon (1974) is consistent with fourteen guidelines presented previously. This method permits teachers and students to plan, organize, implement, and participate in shared classroom activities. The teacher serves as leader/facilitator and encourages leadership among students. Such a system trains students in responsible decision making, a skill needed in adult life. The problem-solving method involves the student at each level of the process. Gordon's (1974) six steps are as follows:

1. **Definition of the Problem.** Raise the following questions at the initial level: What is the student actually doing? Is the behavior a problem? What does the student think about the behavior? Does the student have control over the behavior? Getting down to the real problem may be difficult unless both teacher and student are willing to explore the situation. The teacher can help by emphasizing a willingness to find a solution acceptable to the student. Make sure the student recognizes the behavior as a problem and one that he/she feels a need to change. Otherwise, the process loses its mutuality. Remember to look beyond symptoms to the cause(s).

2. **Generation of Possible Solutions.** Both teacher and student should present possible things which might be done to solve the problem. At this stage all alternatives are noted without evaluating or judging their relative usefulness. Spend enough time at this state so that all possible solutions are listed. Keep working until apparently no additional alternatives exist.

3. **Evaluation of Alternatives.** The first step in this stage is to decide which alternatives are totally unacceptable to either teacher or student. This sometimes results by combining two or more of the possible solutions generated in Step 2. An alternative should be judged on how well it satisfies the teacher, how well it satisfies the student, its effects on others, how practical it is, and the probability of being a lasting solution.

4. **Decision on Best Alternatives.** At this stage the teacher and student agree on the best alternative. The best alternative may be a compromise from several of the alternatives presented in step two. Definitely both teacher and student need to understand fully the alternative chosen. To make a written copy of the alternative chosen and to assure that both parties receive a copy are wise procedures.

5. **Implementation of Decision.** Are preliminary steps necessary before the plan can be implemented? A timetable should be established which includes plans for evaluation of the alternative.

6. **Evaluation.** The success of the alternative selected must be determined. Because not all alternatives will be good ones, the evaluation stage will allow modifications to be made. Questions to ask include: Is the problem solved? What makes this alternative effective? Were both teacher and student satisfied with the results? How can this particular alternative be useful in future situations?

The system just described involves a "process" as much as it involves an "outcome." The process-focused approach is one in which the teacher examines the dynamics of the interaction between teacher and student. Because such an approach requires effective process skills, we believe it is to be operative when conditions are established where students recognize the classroom as a caring environment. A caring environment will result in fewer discipline problems. An effective teacher will demonstrate the value of processes by recognizing the importance of the learning which takes place during each stage of development of classroom management systems. An effective teacher will also communicate the importance of learning how to solve problems rather than solving a specific problem of immediate need for attention.

Group-focus behaviors are those which maintain attention on the group even when one student is receiving individual attention. Such a focus involves group alerting, the extent to which the teacher holds students responsible for completing tasks in the group. Group-focus behaviors are significantly related to effective classroom management.

The teacher behaviors have been found to be related to successful classroom management. Behaviors focus primarily on the process involved in the classroom group and secondarily on individual students.

Regardless of the technique, strategy, or teacher behavior involved, the goal should be toward the student *internalization of group norms* of appropriate behavior. The idea of internalization describes results of extending one's concept of self to include attributes which were parts of others. A student can extend conception of self to include many roles and this internalization can vary in degree. In any case the internalizations become values for the student.

Once values have been internalized, the student reacts to them as he/she reacts to the rest of self. If some behavior violates a value, the student is more likely to react in such a way as to alter the value, or simply to employ self-discipline. The entire process is so very important to our society today. Youngsters need to learn responsibility and cooperation, responsibility for solving problems, and a willingness to work with others.

In a relationship with a teacher, a student is constantly exposed to the evaluation of his/her actions. Teachers are proud or ashamed, approving or disapproving, rewarding or punishing, soothing or irritating. Before long a student applies the implications of these actions to meanings as a person, and becomes keenly aware of the valued or devalued attributes of these roles and identities.

So pleasant are the consequences that follow from a teacher's approval of one or more attributes that the student becomes proficient at displaying them as a means of earning an even higher self-concept. So unpleasant are the consequences of teacher disapproval of attributes that the student becomes equally proficient at hiding them or playing them down to avoid a lowering of self-concept. The student learns the rules of the game. Then after a period of playing the required roles, those rules are finally internalized. The student then applies them to self and suffers a lowered self-concept when he/she violates them, whether or not anyone else knows about the violation. At that point the student is self-disciplined and has the potential for a higher self-concept.

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CHAPTER 7

THE TEACHER AND GROUP SITUATIONS

One of the unique characteristics of the teaching profession is that teachers spend most of their time working with students in groups. While teachers are encouraged to recognize and teach toward individual difference, the effort often must be made in the context of a group with 20 to 30 students. Teachers frequently comment that a student does well when alone yet becomes a discipline problem in a group. Sometimes it is even obvious that the same student behaves quite differently when with another group. These realizations suggest a need for the classroom teacher to have some basic knowledge and skills in group dynamics.

Group experiences can contribute to the development of the individual. Every student has a need to belong, a need which can be fulfilled by participation in school groups. Through participation in groups the student is likely to experience feelings of recognition, acceptance, and approval. The student also may try some technique and thereby if successful gain self-confidence. The student is able to experience satisfaction which comes through successful group effort. The teacher is responsible primarily for providing the kind of social climate and the kind of experiences which lead to social adjustment. Out of this recognized responsibility the teacher then has a need to understand the operation of group dynamics in a regular classroom.

The purpose is not to make group counselors out of all teachers but to provide enough background information so that the teacher, assisted by the school counselor and other school personnel, can create the classroom climate believed conducive to social adjustment.

Shaw (1976) has defined a "group" as "two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person" (p. 11). This definition seems sufficient to describe a typical classroom in which teacher and students are interacting with one another and in which both teacher and student(s) are influencing each other. The classroom group becomes such as it progresses through a series of stages.

One typical way in which the classroom group becomes such is when a given task or goal is established toward which all in the classroom, including the teacher, have decided is desirable. If the teacher chooses the task or sets the goal for the class without understanding his/her own goals, chances for success are minimal. In order to help the class establish realistic and desirable goals, the teacher needs to understand those wishes and desires that seem most important to students. When teachers ask students about goals, teachers are likely to receive a variety of responses with some tendency toward a large number relating to both interpersonal relations and academic success. These responses are likely to be those which have produced some kind of reward in the past, a reward which was found satisfying. These probably include items such as good grades, being first to complete some work, being called on to answer a question, teacher approval, or peer approval. With some group knowledge the teacher should be better able to facilitate the occurrence of these satisfactions more frequently and more deeply.

Suggestions are not that academic goals take on secondary importance to personal-social goals, but that goals related to worthy group membership be recognized and given some importance when goals are being established. Emphasize that these two sets of goals are really not inconsistent with each other. The teacher can help students see the relationship between educational and personal-social goals. The teacher can help students discover which goals are easily attainable, which are long-range goals, which are probably unattainable, which ones are worthy to strive toward, and how to evaluate progress toward goals.

All of this leads to what Schmuck and Schmuck (1971) have summarized as ingredients for a healthy or positive classroom environment. They described a positive classroom environment as

> One in which the students share high amounts of potential influence—both with one another and with the teacher; where high levels of attraction exist for the group as a whole and between classmates; where norms are supportive for getting academic work done, as well as for maximizing individual differences; where communication is open and featured by dialogue; and where the processes of working and developing together as a group are considered relevant in themselves. (p. 18)

GROUP DYNAMICS

Knowledge of group dynamics enhances teacher understanding of individuals. The network of interactions in the classroom is complex and holds different significance for each student. The information which follows should not be seen as absolute answers or reasons for a student's behavior, but only as a source of possibilities. In fact, Shaw (1976) even presented his statements about groups as hypotheses, suggesting that the statements are tentative and may be proven or disproven with some additional research. His general hypotheses were as follows:

1. The mere presence of others increases the motivation level of a performing individual when the individual expects to be evaluated.

2. Group judgments are superior to individual judgments on tasks that involve random error.

3. Groups usually produce more and better solutions to problems than do individuals working alone.

4. Groups usually require more time to complete a task than do individuals working alone, especially when time is measured in man-minutes.

5. Members of sociometrically cohesive groups learn more than members of less cohesive groups when they want to learn.

6. More new and radical ideas are produced by both individuals and groups when critical evaluation of ideas is suspended during the production period.

7. Decisions made after group discussion are usually more risky than decisions made by the average individual prior to group discussion. (pp. 78-80)

These seven hypotheses about groups suggested that some differences exist between individuals working alone and individuals working in groups. These hypotheses suggested that a group has advantages over individuals working alone. These hypotheses seem to have significant implications for classroom groups. Shaw (1976) reviewed these hypotheses and research with children's groups to arrive at another set of hypotheses specifically related to children. These hypotheses are listed.

1. Children learn socially approved ways of behaving in groups via the socialization process.

2. Heterogeneous ability grouping facilitates academic achievements to a greater extent than homogeneous ability grouping.

3. Teachers react more favorably to teaching homogeneous ability groups than to teaching heterogeneous groups.

4. Homogeneous ability grouping tends to raise the self-esteem of the less capable group members; whereas, heterogeneous grouping tends to raise the self-esteem of the more capable individuals.

5. Team-teaching facilitates academic achievements in the lower grades but impedes academic achievement in higher elementary grades.

6. Children are more creative in groups than when alone.

7. Children are more creative in small groups than in large groups.

8. Creativity may be fostered in children by permitting them to manipulate and ask questions about things in their environment.

9. Children are more creative in homogeneous groups than heterogeneous groups.

10. Cooperative behavior can be developed and maintained by either direct or vicarious reinforcement, although maintenance depends upon the continued presence of reinforcement.

11. Certain types of structuring of children's groups encourage the development of cooperative behavior. (pp. 380-382)

In many respects, classroom groups, in which the teacher confronts, are similar to any other group in a number of ways. These hypotheses would reveal to the teacher a framework against which to organize and view the interactions in the class. These hypotheses may not provide absolute answers, but they should give some clues as to where to look for sources of successful classroom organizational patterns or those which seem to be responsible for some problem behaviors. The answers to these questions cannot be certain or final. They must be tentative. Group relationships are extremely complicated and adding to this complexity is the teacher who contributes also to the interaction patterns which develop in the classroom.

Schmuck and Schmuck (1971) suggested that, in understanding classroom group dynamics, teachers consider both formal and informal relationships which students have with each other. These relationships are important because students develop both emotionally and intellectually in contact with each other. Teachers have some degree of control over the formal interactions, while the informal peer interactions are less under the influence of teachers. Regardless of the degree of teacher influence, both formal and informal relationships share near equal importance in determination of self-concepts. In fact, informal peer relationships influence formal relations, thus influencing the actual learning experience.

CLASSROOM SEATING ARRANGEMENTS

The physical environment in the classroom has much to do with the general atmosphere for learning. We assume that a classroom will have sufficient lighting, adequate ventilation, and a comfortable temperature. Another item in the physical environment has to do with seating arrangements. The seating pattern used in a classroom will have major influences on the degree of acquaintance, friendliness, talkativeness, and productivity. Teachers must be aware that cultural influences also affect seating patterns. Factors such as personal space (the space placed between oneself and another to remain comfortable) and leadership preferences are but two areas where children may have been subjected to cultural influences. Teachers must become aware of children who find it difficult to work in close proximity with other children. Teachers also must be aware of children who seem to take positions in groups (such as the "head of the table") because they perceive themselves in the leadership position. Likewise, an awareness of those children who seem reluctant to participate can often be identified by observing the seating position they take in a group.

Sommer (1967) studied seating arrangements in classrooms and concluded that classroom participation is related to seating arrangement. Four basic patterns of seating can be observed in classrooms. These four patterns are shown in Figure 7.1.

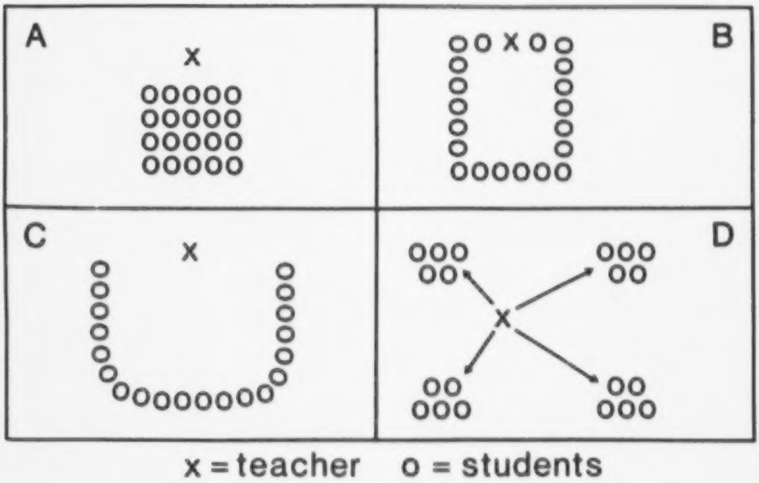

Figure 7.1. Four illustrative classroom seating arrangements.

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Arrangement A seems to be a typical row arrangement where the teacher is the identified leader (authority). Students in this arrangement are unable to have eye contact with each other. Sommer (1967) concluded that in such an arrangement students in the front will participate more than students in the rear and students in the center participated more than students on the sides.

Arrangement B has the advantage of the teacher being on an equal level with the students (democratic) and students can maintain eye contact with each other. This arrangement seems appropriate for any classroom activity where all students are expected to participate and where the role of the teacher as the leader is minimized. Hearn (1957) found that when groups are seated at a square table, commmunication is more likely to occur between persons sitting opposite each other rather than between persons sitting next to each other.

Arrangement C seems to combine the advantages of student-to-student eye contact with the identified leadership of the teacher. This arrangement seems ideal for a smaller classroom where a full circle is not possible or where a large table is unavailable. This arrangement can be modified to have two semi-circle rows where the numbers of students will not allow a single row.

Arrangement D is designed for instruction where students will work independently with several other students. The small groups should be placed far enough apart to avoid distractions and they should each be easily accessible to the teacher who can move from one group to another.

These arrangements offer possibilities for a variety of classroom situations. No one classroom seating arrangement is better than another. Classroom seating arrangements, whenever possible, are to be adapted according to the particular task or the specific need which can best be accomplished by using that particular arrangement.

Hypotheses presented earlier must be taken into consideration when deciding on a classroom seating arrangement. These observations are especially important when making decisions about ability grouping in the classroom for instructional purposes. These observations are important because the physical environment of the classroom serves to convey a message to the children about goals of learning and about how they should work.

ROLES OF GROUP MEMBERS

If the teacher is to use some principles of group dynamics in the classroom, there also must be an understanding of roles of students when in a group setting. Perhaps the most thorough classification of group roles was made by Benne and Scheats (1948) who, observing small group behavior, found that role enactment could be divided into three categories: group task roles, group building and maintenance roles, and individual roles.

When a group must accomplish a task, members perform task roles. A task role may be composed of one or more of the following task functions:

1. **Initiating** suggestions and ideas, offering alternatives solutions, methods or procedures.
2. **Seeking information,** asking for ideas and suggestions, identifying areas where additional information is needed.
3. **Seeking opinions,** requesting clarification of feelings or opinions.
4. **Giving information,** giving relevant data and suggestions to the group.
5. **Giving opinions,** offering personal feelings about an idea, or acceptability of a proposed solution.
6. **Elaborating,** building on ideas of others, anticipating results of solutions offered by group, suggest a rationale for some suggestion.
7. **Coordinating,** showing relationship between ideas expressed by pulling them together.
8. **Orienting,** summarizing what has happened, developing a theme of what has taken place.
9. **Clarifying,** questioning proposals, restating ideas, interpreting behavior in terms of some standard.
10. **Energizing,** stimulating, prodding group to higher level of achievement.
11. **Maintaining procedures,** performing routine tasks necessary for smooth and effective operation of group.
12. **Recording,** writing conclusions, taking votes, asking for concerns and commitment from group. (Benne & Sheats, 1948)

Task roles are concerned primarily with attainment of some goal, purpose, or task. This role does not occur in isolation from social needs or demands which individuals bring to the group meeting. To facilitate accomplishment of a given task the group leader must be aware of these social needs. Needs which emerge in specific behaviors are called group building or maintenance functions, and combine to make maintenance roles. The following list identifies maintenance roles of group members:

1. **Supporting**, offering praise, agreement, commendation and recognition of other points of view, suggestions or ideas.
2. **Harmonizing**, mediating disagreements, reducing tensions, helping explore each other's personal meaning operating from outside.
3. **Compromising**, from inside conflict, admitting personal errors, yielding to preserve group cohesion.
4. **Gatekeeping**, working to insure that lines of communication are open, encouraging interaction and full participation of all group members.
5. **Standard setting**, setting up idea goal toward which group should strive to attain.
6. **Interpreting**, serving as commentator for group, observing group behavior and offering proposed interpretations of interactions.
7. **Following**, passively going along with group, accepting ideas and serving as an audience. (Benne & Sheats, 1948)

Group members who perform these maintenance roles are interested in the welfare of the group, in group cohesion, and in the social relationship within the group. Not all participants in the group have these interests. Some are in a group to fulfill some personal goal and may only be interested in themselves. These persons use the group only as a vehicle to solve personal needs, and at the expense of the group. These individual roles are as follows:

1. **Disapproving**, refusing to accept any values, feelings, or behaviors of others, using sarcasm, acting aggressively.
2. **Blocking**, refusing to cooperate regardless of the issue or topic involved, point picking, serving as devil's advocate.
3. **Dominating**, calling attention to self, dictating to group, boasting, interrupting group members.
4. **Confessing**, using the group as an audience for personal, unrelated, irrelevant, confession.

5. **Playboying**, joking about everything, refusing to take anything seriously, being cynical, engaging in horseplay.

6. **Help-seeking**, expressing need for group support, expressing insecurity or personal confusion.

7. **Special-interest pleading**, serving as a representative for another group, thereby hiding personal biases or prejudices. (Benne & Sheats, 1948)

Ringwald, Mann, Rosenwein, and McKeachie (1971) observed classrooms and isolated eight clusters of students and six teacher roles. The following are identifiable student roles which were adapted from the research:

1. **The Complaint Student:** typical, average student who is trusting, contented, and wants to absorb what the teacher offers is likely to be found in most traditional classrooms.

2. **The Anxious-Dependent Student:** has low self-esteem, is very concerned about what the teacher thinks, and doubtful about his/her own abilities, rarely participates in class.

3. **The Discouraged Student:** depressed and personally distant, intelligent and hard-working.

4. **The Independent Student:** self-confident, involved, and interested, this student tends to identify with authority figures.

5. **The Hero:** intelligent, creative, involved, introspective, this student is ambivalent toward authority, and erratic in classroom performance.

6. **The Sniper:** rebellious, indifferent, withdrawn, but not creative, this student has low self-esteem. This student typically waits for the classroom discussion to focus on the one subject the student knows something about, and then asks a question designed to trap the teacher. After the attack, the sniper withdraws.

7. **The Attention-Seeker:** This student feels vulnerable, helpless, and threatened by authority, so he/she speaks only when sure to get the teacher's approval.

The sensitive, caring, and concerned teacher goes well beyond merely identifying what role a student is playing. The teacher should seek out the motivation behind the behavior. The teacher might check if the motivation is perhaps attention, power, revenge, achievement, affiliation, or a desire to be left alone. This is an especially difficult task for the teacher who must work with a class of some twenty-five students, each of whom is unique.

With a class of some twenty-five students and depending upon the course content and other aspects of the classroom situation, the teacher may enact any one or all of the following six roles observed by Ringwald et al. (1971):

1. **The Expert:** concerned primarily with the transmission of facts and information.
2. **The Formal Authority:** concerned with evaluation and control.
3. **The Socializing Agent:** concerned with serving as a gatekeeper for his/her own "inner circle" of colleagues.
4. **The Facilitator:** concerned with helping the student achieve his/her own goals.
5. **The Ego-Ideal:** concerned with serving as a model of competence, excitement, and energy.
6. **The Person:** concerned with communicating a variety of roles and not simply the role of teacher.

The effective teacher who is able to determine the motivation of students also must be able to determine the roles he/she is playing and the motivation behind them. The most effective teacher is one who understands consequences of a particular role and therefore uses a role to obtain some known desired result. The effective teacher adaptable to the variety of situations which will emerge in working with groups of students.

STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Roles of group members should become clearer as the stages of group development are examined. Perhaps the clearest delineation of group stage development in the classroom has been presented by Stanford and Roark (1974) as represented in Table 7.1.

Stage 1 is characterized by questions regarding belonging. These questions determine a need for orientation in an environment that is trusting, open, friendly, and nonaggressive. The teacher can provide descriptions of what the class will be like, textbooks, meeting times, and other required information in written form so students can refer to it when necessary. It is good to play some form of get-acquainted game so that students can interact with each other as well as getting acquainted with the teacher. Teachers can model during this process.

Stage 2 is characterized by the establishment of norms for interacting with each other. Limits and rules are set during this stage and teachers expect students to test any limits established. This is perhaps the most critical stage for the teacher because students will learn whether the teacher will actually practice certain classroom rules and regulations. The teacher needs to be accepting of student ideas while recognizing the place of feelings in the process.

The Conflict Stage, Stage 3, is probably best understood as the "get the teacher" stage, where students are likely to see everything done by the teacher as wrong. Students may argue that the rules should be changed. Subgroups will be established in the class and one subgroup is likely to become in conflict with another subgroup. The teacher must be extremely careful to note that this is a normal stage of group development and be very careful in the way hostility or conflict are handled. The teacher can serve as facilitator of students' expression of feelings as well as helping students resolve conflicts.

Stage 4 provides some relief to the tension in the previous stage as students begin to resolve some of their differences in constructive ways. If students believe they have been heard, they are more willing to listen to others. This communication will foster a sense of group cohesion where genuine communication can take place with appropriate feedback and self-disclosure apparent.

TABLE 7.1
Stages of Group Development

	Interaction Pattern	Process & Focus	Communication
STAGE 1. BEGINNING	Randomness or leader-centered pairing & sub-grouping	Confusion searching protective & seeking allies	Guarded constricted topic- & situation-centered
STAGE 2. NORM DEVELOPMENT	Erratic, tentative usually leader-centered or leader-directed	Testing limits seeking answers trial balloons leadership	Security-oriented situation-centered; little self-disclosure
STAGE 3. CONFLICT	Erratic; centers on one person &/or pair, depending on issue; or random	Confrontive hostile; anxious conflict	One-way distorted labeling; some self-disclosure, usually in anger or retaliation
STAGE 4. TRANSITION	Less erratic patterns develop; less centered on leader	Vacillate between task & group concerns focus on new norms & personal feelings	Self-disclosure & feedback-more open & less labeling
STAGE 5. PRODUCTION	Based on task at hand; usually work-dictated	Cooperation group leadership group is a *group; we* identify	Open, within limits of disclosure, feedback & intimacy norms
STAGE 6. AFFECTION	Group-centered but moving to individual in focus	I-Thou interaction often; intimacy norms changed to more intimacy	More self-disclosure & risk; positive feedback
STAGE 7. ACTUALIZATION	Pattern appropriate to task; usually group-centered	Flexible; moves from task to person to group as appropriate	Open, constructive, accurate-based on *being* rather than needs

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Stage 5 is a refinement of and further development of the shared trusting level of cohesion that developed in the previous stage. The teacher becomes a "consultant" to the class and a true feeling of unity is seen as existing. There is a concern for the feelings of all in the class and feelings of loyalty to each other are high. Considering all factors which impact upon a given classroom, probably only a very few still will reach this stage. Those who reach this stage are likely to spend most of their time here, once it is reached.

Stage 6 is characterized by close personal interactions and these relationships are likely to be seen as the primary task for the class. Students become interested in doing more personal things with each other and avoiding attention to external accomplishments. An outsider may view a class at Stage 6 as having too much fun.

Stage 7 is characterized by a variety of individual learning styles where each is encouraged and accepted. Such a class will be as equally open to conflict as to cooperation. Open disagreement is assumed to be a part of any decision making because all decisions will be arrived via concensus.

Discussion of the stages of group development has to be understood in light of the reality that no group will progress through the stages as clearly as they have been presented. Group member roles both task and individual will have a bearing on how well a class will negotiate the stages. When difficulty arises, likely groups will revert to a previous stage where they are more comfortable. The role of the teacher is crucial to the development of positive transition from one stage to another. An awareness of stage development, coupled with an empathic, genuine, caring, knowledgeable person, should make for a good teacher.

GROUP GAMES AND TRAPS

The effective teacher is one who is capable of viewing groups of students as able to learn to think for themselves, they can locate information, evaluate it, and put it into action. The effective teacher believes that each student has a contribution to make to the group and that the teacher has a contribution to make too. This teacher believes that, given enough relevant information and time to think about it, a group can decide better what is best for them than can the teacher individually. He/she makes information available to the group and helps them seek additional sources of information. The teacher facilitates group decisions and helps students find ways of measuring their progress and success. The teacher helps each member find a way to participate and a place in the group so that each student feels a part of the group.

Despite all attempts at fostering a positive environment where learning can take place, some pitfalls exist and should be avoided if the teacher is to develop the most promising learning environment. Newman (1974) identified five games of students which lead to entrapment of the teacher.

1. The **Who did it first** game. This game serves the group's needs by blaming others for one's actions. Students will respond that "someone else did it first" as a means of detracting attention from themselves. Sometimes a general scapegoat may become identified in a classroom. This person becomes victimized and blamed for starting any negative events. Teachers must be aware of the difficulty in determining origins of behavior in specific episodes. The first person should not be blamed any more than other participants.

2. The **Fairness** game. Any person who recalls childhood must remember using the statement "it isn't fair" in an attempt to get additional consideration from parents and teachers. This game derives from sibling rivalries and is most often put into play when one desires to avoid a task or merely to watch the teacher become agitated. Teachers must work to avoid singling out a particular student or a group of students who get special favors. Other students will use this to attack the teacher and also will blame students because they have received some advantage. This is not to say that all students must be treated alike. The effective teacher recognizes that different individual needs of students exist in a class and that individuals with different needs are taught individually.

3. The **Do-gooder** game. This game frequently involves the teacher who enters teaching with some missionary zeal to do good deeds. Frequently this type of teacher determines self-worth and teacher-worth by helping the unfortunate. Such a

mission is likely to produce phoney responses to students because the teacher is unable to be genuine and honest in such a situation. The goal is to be empathic toward students and not sympathetic toward them.

4. The **Willing-sucker** game. The teacher will discover that in every group at least one student is vulnerable and easily manipulated. Students often find power in manipulating another to satisfy their own needs, while maintaining for themselves shelter from consequences. The goal of the teacher is to try to catch the manipulating student in the process and reveal the observed dynamics.

5. The **Dare** game. This game is similar to the "Willing-sucker" game but the participant is not easily manipulated. In fact, the "dare" game involves the issuance of a challenge so great that failure to live up to it would cause one to seriously question a place in the group. The person offering the dare convinces himself/herself that failure comes from willingness to participate, not from actually losing. Similar strategies are useful in disarming the challenger of the "dare" game as with the "willing- sucker" game.

Activities included in Pfeiffer and Jones, *A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Volumes 1-7,* may be useful in combatting one of the games mentioned previously, in getting the group started, in helping the group resolve conflict, or in providing individual feedback to a member of the class. The advantage of this activity series is that activities are included from a minimal level of involvement to a very intense level of involvement. Various activities are appropriate for each stage through which a group may be progressing. The activities are fun and provide further helpful insight into dynamics of group process.

The question of efficiency of group function will emerge over and over. The teacher must remember that the classroom group situation will not work perfectly because human beings are not perfect. Success can be measured only in terms of progress toward an ideal. Teachers also must remember that a single failure does not mean total failure. One is inclined to view immediate results and to ignore possibilities of long-term efforts.

PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCES

Two forms of activities involve interactions between teachers and parents, parent-teacher conferences and parent-education groups. Parent-education groups will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 11. Material presented on student groups will be applicable to any other group which the teacher encounters. The dynamics involved in working with parent groups is essentially the same as with any other group.

Parent participation is a key element in the education of their children. Parents must be encouraged to take an active role in the education of their children. Such involvement necessitates frequent contact between the teacher and parents. Some general points which must be considered involving parent-teacher conferences are as follows:

1. Did the teacher do groundwork prior to the conference so that parents are aware of what will be discussed? Parents need an opportunity to prepare themselves too.
2. Is the teacher able to establish a pleasant environment, free from threat?
3. Are all parties allowed time to voice concerns? Did this occur? The conference should not be viewed as one-sided where the teacher "tells" parents what to do.
4. Was follow-up clear so that some progress can be monitored? Were responsibilities clearly defined?

Davis and Davis (1981) identified some additional critical questions which require answers before the parent-teacher conference begins.

> What do I want from the conference?
>
> What are my strengths and weaknesses in the problem area?
>
> What are my attitudes toward the child? The parents?
>
> What are my feelings about conducting the conference?
>
> If conflicts arise, which of my defenses are likely to emerge?

Will other school personnel be involved in the conference?

Is the conference to be held in a place where interruptions or noise may be expected?

What messages will make up the body of the conference?

What possible solutions will be discussed?

How will the conference be summarized? (pp. 47-50)

Teachers must view parents as natural allies in the process of educating their children. Too frequently parents and teachers become adversaries. Too frequently parents and teachers see parents as only one of the types described by Ryan and Cooper (1980):

1. Mrs. Mysonthegenius, expects average child to be a genius.
2. Mrs. Putdown, a former teacher who quickly points out what is wrong with teacher and class.
3. Mrs. Latecomer, has no support for teacher or child and complains when problems naturally arise.
4. Mr. Heavyhands, knows how to handle child and teacher is encouraged to use same techniques.
5. Mrs. Youthinkyou'vegotproblems, attends school conference and focuses on her problems and not the child.
6. Mrs. Specialhelp, child is doing well but parent is sure that he/she needs special attention, possibly tutoring, and uses guilt to force teacher to help. (pp. 94-96)

Heun and Heun (1975) summarized Jack Gibbs research on communication behaviors which lead to *defensiveness* or *supportiveness*. Knowledge of these behaviors seems quite appropriate in light of parent-teacher conferences. They also are applicable in other settings as well. The behaviors are described in Table 7.2.

The parent-teacher conference, when handled properly, should serve as an excellent public relations and educational tool. An understanding of the preparation needed prior to the conference, parent types, communication behaviors, and evaluation of the conference should enable the teacher to use conferences to their maximum potential. The parent conference should be used for all students, not only for those experiencing difficulty. Their use should be seen as a normal part of the school routine.

TABLE 7.2

Characteristics of Defensive and Supportive Communication Climates and Verbal Indicators

Communication Behaviors leading to Defensiveness	Communication Behaviors leading to Supportiveness
1. *Evaluation*—to pass judgment on another, to blame or praise based on one's values; to make moral assessments of another; to question standards, values, and motives of another. Use of words like "good," "bad," "right," "wrong."	1. *Description*—nonjudgmental; to ask questions which are perceived as genuine requests for information; to present feelings, perceptions, or processes which do not ask or imply that the receiver change behavior or attitude.
2. *Control*—to try to do something to another; to attempt to change an attitude or the behavior of another—to try to restrict another's field of activity, choices (implied in attempts to change another person is that he is now inadequate). Use of words like "should," "ought to," and "need to."	2. *Problem Orientation*—the opposite of persuasion. To communicate a "desire to work together," to define a problem and seek a solution; to imply that you have no preconceived solution, attitude, or method to impose; to allow the other to set his own goals, make his own decisions, and evaluate his own progress or to share with you in doing so.
3. *Strategy*—to manipulate others; to use tricks to involve another.	3. *Spontaneity*—to be straightforward and honest, to be free from deception; to communicate that you have no hidden motives directed toward that person.
4. *Neutrality*—to express a lack of concern for the other person; to communicate a detached "other person as an object" attitude.	4. *Empathy*—to express respect for the worth of the listener, to identify with his problems, share his feelings, and accept his emotions at face value.
5. *Superiority*—to communicate the attitude that you are "better than the other" in position, power, wealth, intellectual ability, physical characteristics; to raise feelings of inadequacy in the other. Use of self-references and comparative terms.	5. *Equality*—to be willing to enter into participative interaction with mutual trust and respect; to attach little importance to differences in talent, ability, worth, appearance, status, and power. Use of plural pronouns (e.g., "we").
6. *Certainty*—to appear dogmatic; to seem to already know all the answers; needing to win an argument rather than solve a problem; seeing your own ideas as "truths" to be defended. Use of symbols like "obviously," "certainly."	6. *Provisionalism*—to be willing to reconsider your own behavior, attitudes, and ideas; to investigate issues rather than take sides. Use of tentative language (e.g., "it seems like," "as far as I know").

NOTE. From *Developing Skills for Human Interaction* (p. 81) by L. R. Heun and R. E. Heun, 1975, Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company. Copyright 1975 by Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company. Reprinted by permission.

Quite frequently the teacher may be called to lead or interact with other groups in the community. The teacher should view these offers as opportunities to use the many skills developed in working with a class. Again, the teacher is reminded that the same dynamics observed in a classroom or with a group of parents will emerge in any other group. Teachers learn from interaction with others just as do students. The more interactions the teacher has, the more likely it will be that he/she will find personal rewards in places other than the classroom. Additionally, students should be encouraged to participate in other groups, both in and out of school. After all, human society is based largely upon the capacity of individuals to respond to needs of other human beings, often in the context of a group.

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CHAPTER 8

WORKING WITH SPECIAL GROUPS

The purpose of this chapter is to set forth some procedures for teaching special populations in schools. Teaching special groups presents a complex problem because it involves interaction of factors involving the child, the school, the home, the community, and the government. Education of special populations necessitates coordination of services from various school and community resources.

Two specific categories of students will be discussed. First, some strategies for teaching Black students shall be presented. The focus will be on Black students because racial differences between Black and white students are of particular interest and importance in schools. Furthermore, many, if not all, approaches useful in teaching Black students apply to other minority groups as well.

The second part of this chapter focuses on special students who are classified as "exceptional." This group includes those students who are classified as learning disabled, emotionally handicapped, mentally handicapped, or gifted/talented. Many of these students will be taught in self-contained classrooms. Others will be assigned to regular classrooms (mainstreamed), necessitating special understanding and techniques for teaching.

TEACHING BLACK STUDENTS

Among areas associated with teaching is the issue of cross-racial interaction. Whether races have been isolated from each other or have had intensive interactions, beliefs about persons of a different race are generalized to other persons of the same race. Rokeach (1970) found that contact between Blacks and whites produced less prejudiced persons than when no contact occurred. Because mere contact does not eliminate prejudice, it is necessary to provide some means by which individuals may openly discuss their racial feelings. Sensitivity programs of racial awareness seem to offer the greater facility in helping persons come to grips with their emotional feelings regarding racial issues. While such racial awareness programs are useful, they must be developed in conjunction with specific skills training if the greatest benefit is to be realized.

Beck (1973) summarized, in tabular form (Table 8.1), some work by Bertram Lee and Warren Schmidt on relations between Blacks and whites. These data are presented so that both whites and Blacks can become more aware of assumptions and behaviors which block authentic relations. Assumptions and behaviors which facilitate more authentic relations are also presented. This suggests that meaningful knowledge about self and members of the different race is necessary both from a theoretical level as well as a practical level.

Adding more in this area Cheek (1976) identified ten characteristics of Black persons which have evolved over a long period of adjustment. Black persons may possess any one or more of these characteristics:

1. Bi-dialectical, which means a knowledge of standard English as well as a familiarity with or emphasis upon Black language or nonstandard English.
2. Cultural paranoia, a general distrust of whites until proven otherwise.
3. A preoccupation with race and its importance.
4. A seething aggression and pent up anger and rage.
5. A lack of loyalty to white institutions or organizations.
6. Conflict in whether to talk "white or black."
7. An alertness to preferential treatment given to whites.
8. An ability to "fake it" with white people and not reveal self.
9. A sensitivity to nonverbal cues such as body posturing, manner of walk, use of eyes, sucking of teeth, and facial expressions.
10. A suspiciousness and unconvinced attitude concerning patriotism, authority, the value of law, and hard work. (pp. 38-39)

Note that these characteristics are learned and are likely to appear somewhat different among Black persons from different social classes or geographical locations. One caution is that these characteristics should not be assumed to exist simply because a person is Black. Instead, they are presented for additional understanding of some possibilities of difficulties in interracial interactions.

Love (1977) presented an extensive list of teacher behaviors which get in the way of good interracial interactions in desegregated schools. Her list was revised to develop positive behaviors which should facilitate the teaching of Black students.

1. Hold high expectations of Black students.
    a. Encourage Black students to excel.
    b. Provide individual attention for Black students having difficulty in reading or math.
2. Use appropriate instructional materials.

Table 8.1

Toward more Authentic Interpersonal Relations between Blacks and Whites

	Assumptions Which BLOCK Authentic Relations	Assumptions Which FACILITATE Authentic Relations
Assumptions Whites Make	• Color is unimportant in interpersonal relations. • Blacks will always welcome and appreciate inclusion in white society. • Open recognition of color may embarrass Blacks. • Blacks are trying to use Whites. • Blacks can be stereotyped. • White society is superior to Black society. • "Liberal" Whites are free of racism. • All Blacks are alike in their attitudes and behavior. • Blacks are oversensitive. • Blacks must be controlled.	• People count as individuals. • Blacks are human—with individual feelings, aspirations, and attitudes. • Blacks have a heritage of which they are proud. • Interdependence is needed between Whites and Blacks. • Blacks are angry. • Whites cannot fully understand what it means to be Black. • Whiteness/Blackness is a real difference but not the basis on which to determine behavior. • Most Blacks can handle White's authentic behavior and feelings. • Blacks want a responsible society. • Blacks are capable of managerial maturity. • I may be part of the problem.
Assumptions Blacks Make	• All Whites are alike. • There are no "soul brothers" among Whites. • Honkies have all the power. • Whites are always trying to use Blacks. • Whites are united in their attitude toward Blacks. • All Whites are racists. • Whites are not really trying to understand the situation of the Blacks. • Whitey's got to deal on Black terms. • Silence is the sign of hostility. • Whites cannot and will not change except by force. • The only way to gain attention is through confrontation. • All Whites are deceptive. • All Whites will let you down in the "crunch."	• Openness is healthy. • Interdependence is needed between Blacks and Whites. • People count as individuals. • Negotiation and collaboration are possible strategies. • Whites are human beings and, whether they should or not, do have their own hang-ups. • Some Whites can help and "do their own thing." • Some Whites have "soul."

	Behaviors Which BLOCK Authentic Relations	Behaviors Which FACILITATE Authentic Relations
Behaviors of Whites	• Interruptions. • Condescending behavior. • Offering help where not needed or wanted. • Avoidance of contact (eye-to-eye and physical). • Verbal focus on Black behavior rather than White behavior. • Insisting on playing games according to White rules. • Showing annoyance at Black behavior which differs from their own. • Expressions of too easy acceptance and friendship. • Talking about, rather than to, Blacks who are present.	• Directness and openness in expressing feelings. • Assisting other White brothers to understand and confront feelings. • Supporting self-initiated moves of Black people. • Listening without interrupting. • Demonstration of interest in learning about Black perceptions, culture, etc. • Staying with and working through difficult confrontations. • Taking a risk (e.g., being first to confront the differences). • Assuming responsibility for examining own motives—and where they are.
Behaviors of Blacks	• Confrontation too early and too harshly. • Rejection of honest expressions of acceptance and friendship. • Pushing Whites into such a defensive posture that learning and re-examination is impossible. • Failure to keep a commitment and then offering no explanation. • "In-group" joking, laughing at Whites—in Black culture language. • Giving answers Blacks think Whites want to hear. • Using confrontation as the primary relationship style. • Isolationism.	• Showing interest in understanding White's point of view. • Acknowledging that there are some committed Whites. • Acting as if "we have some power"—and don't need to prove it. • Allowing Whites to experience unaware areas of racism. • Openness. • Expression of real feelings. • Dealing with Whites where they are. • Meeting Whites half-way. • Treating Whites on one-to-one basis. • Telling it like it is. • Realistic goal-sharing. • Showing pride in their heritage.

Note. From *The Counselor and Black/White Relations* (pp. 63-64) by J. D. Beck, 1973, Boston: Houghton Mifflin. Copyright 1973 by Houghton Mifflin. Reprinted by permission.

  a. Use textbooks which include Black viewpoints.

  b. Supplement textbooks with materials and activities which foster a multicultural viewpoint.

  c. Use bulletin board displays which recognize Black issues, holidays, contributions, heroes, etc.

  d. Use Black persons as resources in the instructional progarm.

  e. Include instructional materials that help students explore myths and stereotypes of racism.

3. Every effort should be made to foster interpersonal relations between teachers and Black students.

  a. Relate to Black students as individuals.

  b. Hold high standards for Black students.

  c. Respond positively toward Black student's hair styles, music, clothing, and so forth.

  d. Interact with Black students in out-of-class activities.

4. Group Black students on the basis of ability.

  a. Use a variety of sources of information to determine class placements.

  b. Examine standardized tests for sources of bias against Black students.

  c. Seat students alphabetically in class.

5. Use counseling approaches appropriate to needs of Black students.

  a. Encourage Black students to move into nontraditional career paths.

  b. Help Black students prepare to take standardized tests.

  c. Encourage Black students to become peer helpers for other Black students.

6. Encourage institutional practices appropriate for Black students.

  a. Encourage Schoolwide acknowledgment of Black holidays.

  b. Initiate/facilitate interest clubs and extra-curricular activities specific to the interests of Black students, e.g., Bid-whiz Club, Swahili Club.

    c. Work to secure participation of Black students in total school program.

7. Be honest in interactions with students.
    a. Be willing to discuss "touchy" issues (busing, segregated housing patterns).
    b. Assist students in examining conflicting racial feelings and attitudes.
    c. Be open to discussions of incidents with racial overtones in the classrooms.
    d. Be open to discussions of relationships between Black and white students.
8. Administer discipline fairly.

THE SELF-FULFILLING PROPHECY

Generally, research on intergroup-interracial education supports the thesis that teachers have lower expectations of Black students than white students. Teachers also tend to have lower expectations of students from lower socioeconomic levels than from higher socioeconomic levels. Expectations are the lowest for "disadvantaged" Black students. A study by Cooper, Baron, and Rowe (1978) showed that "lower class" Black students were expected to receive lower grades than "lower class" white students, and "lower class" students, regardless of race. Although the Black middle class student was expected to achieve success equal to the white middle class counterpart, if he/she failed, external forces such as luck and task difficulty were held responsible. If the white middle class student failed, it was because of internal factors such as ability and effort.

In a study by Harvey and Slatin (1975), using a sample drawn from schools serving lower and upper middle class neighborhoods in a city of 100,000, teachers regardless of perceived socioeconomic background expected white children to succeed more often than Black children.

Long and Henderson (1974) found that Southern teachers expected less from Black students scoring low on I.Q. tests than low-scoring whites, and they expected less of Black students who were talkative and participated in class activities than white children who were active.

Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) discussed how teachers in schools located in "lower class" neighborhoods did not set standards as high as those in middle class schools, nor were they as concerned with bringing their children up to grade level. In the same vein, Silberman (1970) visited schools in ghetto areas and was surprised by the modesty of the expectations of teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendents for students in their care.

Thus, if a tendency exists for many teachers to have lowered expectations for Black "disadvantaged" students, the next question is "Why"?

According to Silberman, apparently many teachers of Black children believe that (even if they do not admit it in their minds) their students are intellectually inferior. Even when this attitude is unconscious, the teacher cannot avoid communicating it to the children in some way or another. Generally, explanations seem to be based on either the belief of inherent racial inferiority (as evidenced from I.Q tests) or the premise that the environmental conditions in which many "disadvantaged" Black children live depresses the ability of these children to learn.

The first assumption is mainly based on the misinterpretation and emphasis of I.Q. tests. Teachers apparently attribute at least a rough predictive validity to readiness test scores in spite of evidence that the reliability and validity of these tests are weak. These teachers see the child as a fixed entity determined by heredity; the determinant is these tests. For them, the I.Q. scores are a meaningful guide to a child's potential and accept that these scores will follow the children for the rest of their lives (Silberman, 1964).

Generally those who expect less of Black students because of the low I.Q. scores have neglected to understand the limitations of tests and that scores may not be a true measure of intellectual competence because they do not take into account factors of motivation and possible cultural bias.

The other explanation of intellectual inferiority rests on thesis that when poor children enter school they are intellectually deficient because of deprivations in their environment. In other words, the culturally deprived child is unable to learn in the standard educational environment because no stimulation for educational achievement has occurred. Instead of being viewed as cognitive differences in specific areas, social deprivation theories have been generalized to imply that the student is intellectually deficient. For example, the assumption that because poor children use an "impoverished mode of speech," which in turn degrades their thought, they are intellectually deficient and cannot succeed in academic endeavors (Ginsburg, 1972). Baratz and Baratz (1973) concur that the social deprivationists assume a lack of stimulation in "disadvantaged" Black children rather than a difference in environmental stimulation.

According to Clark (1965) the problem with the "socially neglected," "school retarded," "culturally impoverished," "culturally deficient" students is that they have been assigned generally negative terms and descriptions which in turn lower teacher expectations. "These children do not learn because those who are charged with the responsibility of teaching them do not believe that they can learn, do not expect that they can learn and do not act towards them in ways which help them to learn" (p. 131). Weatherly and Lipsky (1977) agreed that when teachers are frequently presented with negative data about students they may "adapt a defensive strategy aimed at absolving themselves of responsibility for the child's learning" (p. 189).

Understanding the background of students seems almost a necessity in making realistic expectations, but deprivation theories can pose problems. Expectations are often lowered by empathic understanding. According to Silberman (1964), some books and inservice workshops designed to sensitize teachers and administrators to the problems of the "disadvantaged" backfire. By learning why Black youngsters fail through no fault of their own, some teachers may learn to understand and empathize with failure and thereby to expect it.

Therefore the conclusion is that the main consequence of lower expectations is that these expectations become self-fulfilling prophecies. Once an educational system is organized where children are placed in tracks in separate classrooms or within a single classroom, or where certain judgments about their abilities determine what they are taught or not taught, the results tend to justify the assumptions. Clark (1965) stated it thusly:

> Children themselves are not followed by the various euphemism educators use to disguise educational snobbery. From the earliest grades, a child knows when he has been assigned to a level that is considered less than adequate... Those children who are relegated to the inferior groups suffer a sense of self-doubt and deep feelings of inferiority which stamp their entire attitude toward school and the learning process... But it all adds up to the fact that they are not being taught, and not being taught, they fail. They have a sense of personal humiliation and unworthiness. They react negatively and hostilely and aggressively to the educational system. They hate teachers, they hate schools, they hate anything that seems to impose upon them this denigration because they are not being respected as human beings because they are sacrificed in a machinery of efficiency and expendability, because their dignity and potential as human beings are being obscured and ignored in terms of educationally irrelevant factors—their manner, their speech, their dress, or their apparent disinterest. (p. 128)

Silberman (1964) reported that Leacock and her observers were struck by the liveliness and eager interest of "disadvantaged" students in lower grades as contrasted to the possibility and apathy later. In schools they studied children's interest and eagerness had disappeared by the fifth grade:

> What teachers and administrators communicate to lower class students is not middle class values but middle class attitudes toward lower class people and their role in society. The school, she writes, conveys a middle class image of how working class children are and how they should be—an image which emphasizes obedience, respect and conscientiousness...rather than ability, responsibility and initiative and which expects—unruliness with regard to behavior and apathy with regard to curriculum. By conveying this image to their students, teachers perpetuate the very behavior they decry. And the behavior in turn confirms the teacher's initial expectation, thereby perpetuating the reign of error for still another generation of students. (p. 91)

The classic study of self-fulfilling prophecies was conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) in the South San Francisco Unified School District, a low socioeconomic area. The researchers randomly selected a large group of sixth graders who had recently taken a fairly nonverbal I.Q. test—the *Flanagan Test of General Ability.* Teachers were led to believe that the test measured potentiality for intellectual blooming. Within each classroom in the school 20% of the children were randomly designated as "bloomers," and teachers were told to watch these students closely because they were likely to show a large increase in their intellectual performance during the school year. Eight months later when the entire group of sixth graders was retested, it was found that those students who had been randomly labeled "very bright" demonstrated significantly greater improvement in reasoning and total I.Q. than did the "nonblooming" children. The difference between the bloomer children and the control children was especially pronounced in the lower grades. Students designated as bloomers not only performed better than the control students, but they also were reported to be happier, better adjusted, and more curious. Furthermore, teachers expressed more liking for the bloomers than the controls.

An observational study done by Rist (1971) centered around one class of ghetto children during kindergarten, first and second grade years. The kindergarten teacher, who was Black, placed children in reading groups that reflected the social class composition of the class. Permanent seating arrangements were made the eighth day of school on such factors as behavior, verbalization, dress, mannerisms, and physical appearance. Within a few days only certain children were called upon to lead the class in the pledge of allegiance, read the calendar, lead the class to the bathroom, and perform other duties. These children were seated at a table near the teacher. Children at the outer tables were given a "no response" from the teacher at a ratio of three to one as opposed to the nearer tables. As the year wore on numerous instances were observed of children at far tables calling one another "stupid," "dummy," or "dumb-dumb." General grouping continued in the first and second grades. The second grade pupils at the table near the teacher were called "tigers" and the other two groups were called "cardinals" and "clowns."

In discussing the observation, the researcher noted that no matter how well a child in the lower reading group might have read, that child was destined to remain in the same reading group. This is in a sense another manifestation of the "self-fulfilling prophecy." A slow learner had no option but to continue to be a slow learner regardless of performance or potential. Initial expectations of the kindergarten teacher two years earlier as to the ability of the child resulted in placement in a reading group whether high or low from where there appeared to be no escape. Though the analysis focused on the early years of schooling for a single group of Black children attending a ghetto school, the researcher felt the implications were far-reaching for those situations where children from different status backgrounds were within the same classroom. "When a teacher bases expectations of performance on the social status of the student and assumes that the higher the social status, the higher the potential of the child, children of low social status suffer stigmatization outside their choice or will" (p. 107). This observation brought out the problem that sometimes lowered expectations involve prejudice of class as well as color. In some cases Black teachers also are capable of making unrealistic expectations of their students. Pedersen, Faucher, and Eaton (1978) concluded that if children are lucky enough to have a first grade teacher who has high expectations for their achievement, they will be likely to develop positive self concepts and be more successful in school.

Finally, Rubovits and Maehr (1973) found that academically gifted Black children were subjected to greater criticism by white teachers than were gifted white students. "In this regard, the present study provided what appears to be a disturbing instance of white racism. Black students were given less attention, ignored more, praised less and criticized more" (p. 217). Findings were suggested that it is the gifted Black student who is given the least attention, praise, and most criticism even when comparing him/her to his/her *nongifted* counterpart. Interestingly results showed that highly dogmatic teachers were more inclined towards the prejudicial pattern than less dogmatic teachers.

We hasten to point out that in spite of the research previously cited, several studies have disputed the findings of the role of teacher expectancy in achievement. According to O'Connell, Dusek, and Wheeler (1974), simply telling teachers that a student performs well is not enough to alter the student's performance. Part of the problem is that children also are influenced by the expectations of parents, peers, and administrators so that it is difficult to isolate the factor of teacher expectation. Clairborn (1969) found that when teachers perceived pupils to be of high potential, some of them, but not all, altered their behavior.

Therefore develop realistic expectations for all students, especially those from groups which differ from the majority. In order that the expectations be realistic, understand problems students may face because of their membership in a special group. If students are overwhelmed by unrealistic expectations, whether too high or too low, they may fail and eventually lose confidence in themselves and in the school.

LESSON PLANS TO DEVELOP SELF-ESTEEM AND DIMINISH PREJUDICE

The objective of this section is to present a series of lesson plans with the primary objective being to build a sense of importance and self-worth in each child with the underlying theme being that ALL persons are important. The ultimate goal is to diminish racial feelings in students by allowing them to discover that persons of other races are worthwhile individuals, not in spite of their differences but *because* of their differences. This requires showing the fallacies in old tales and stereotyped generalizations that have been handed down from generations and demands honest expressions of feelings, open discussions, and reevaluations of some erroneous ideas.

Cook (1951) said, "re-education along intergroup lines, if it was to be effective, should be started at the time children enter school" (p. 44). He went on to state that, "under conditions of urban life, prejudices are learned at such early ages as to make the re-education of children in human relations a prime need at the elementary school level" (p. 51).

With this in mind, we advocate that these lessons begin in kindergarten and extend through high school. The deliberate education of the child about himself/herself and others is one of the obligations of the educator. Such learning cannot be left to chance.

To do an effective job of presenting these lesson plans, the teacher may require some special training. It is necessary to be sure of the concepts one wishes to develop and to feel positively about them. Attending a workshop on intergroup education or interracial communication would be helpful; but if one is not available, good reference materials can be found in most libraries.

Although a series of lesson plans which set out to develop self-importance and attack prejudicial behavior have been developed, these same concepts can be developed in all subject matter areas. The teacher must seek ways constantly to incorporate intergroup/interracial education in history, geography, literature, social studies, arts, crafts, music, and all subjects. The history of mathematics provides a good example of cross-cultural development. Biology is a place for teaching about the facts of racial differentiation and the weaknesses of "race" as a scientific concept (Domnitz, 1965).

Besides the formal learning situations, many instances will occur in the classroom and on the playground that will provide good opportunities for strengthening and supplementing ideas and concepts of behavior the teacher wishes to develop and reinforce. If a person can learn to hate and distrust others, he/she can learn to like and trust others as well. Educators advocate that, as much as possible, intergroup education be infused into regular curricula offerings.

Intergroup education is as important as teaching reading, mathematics, or language arts. As a result of selected materials and methods, individuals can and will be changed, in their attitudes and behaviors toward persons of other groups, and toward members of whatever group they themselves belong. The change will result in more acceptance of persons who differ and more acceptance of one's own differences from others (Grambs, 1967).

In utilizing the lesson plans the teacher should realize that they are merely outlines and should be flexible in making changes where necessary to extend or expand areas that need more study in his/her specific situation. Lessons presented on the following pages are designed for elementary school students but activities should be altered to those which will be more age or grade appropriate. Each lesson is designed for approximately thirty minutes of class time.

These lesson plans are developed around parts of the book *Liking Myself* (1977) by Pat Palmer. This book is recommended for children ages five to nine. This is a handlettered and illustrated book which includes information on feelings, self-concept, and assertiveness.

Lesson 1—Like Ourselves

To help create a relaxed, less formal atmosphere, the teacher arranges the chairs so that all students feel a part of the group. If an area is available where the students can sit on the floor, it may be used.

Before the discussion begins, talk about some of the rules to follow so that everyone can hear what is being said and everyone can have a turn to talk. Point out how important it is to listen to what others in the class have to say.

Introduce the lesson by asking students if they know that it is acceptable to like yourself and be your own best friend. Get a discussion going by asking such questions as: What does this mean? Do you like yourself? Are you your own friend? Allow the children to express their opinions freely and avoid showing dissatisfaction with their answers. If anyone in the class makes fun of another's answer, use this opportunity to tell the students that we all have different feelings about things, and that is acceptable. Everyone should say exactly what is felt without the fear of being criticized.

The discussion may not last too long the first time but will get longer as the students become accustomed to expressing their ideas in an environment conducive to free expression of thoughts and feelings.

End the lesson by telling the class members that you want them to feel good about themselves because it is acceptable to like oneself. Enjoy being yourself right now: Clap your hands. Give yourself a hug. Smile at yourself. Now share your good feelings with others by smiling at your neighbor. Reach out and touch a friend. Feel good about yourselves, feel good about each other.

Have the students ask a parent, brother, sister, or friend to tell them what that person likes about them and bring the answers to class for the next lesson. Older students may be asked to write the information.

Lesson 2—Like Others

Have the students make tags of brightly colored paper which say "I LIKE ME." Pin them on each student and encourage them to wear the tags all day. This will help develop interest among the other classes and at home.

Have each child get a partner, sit facing each other, and take turns telling the other about some of the things he/she likes about self. What each child will point out can be very revealing. Comments made can help students see their fellow students in a different light. Have the class members change partners two or three times. Have as many Black/white pairs as possible, and encourage the children to try to find different things to say about themselves with each new partner.

After finishing this activity ask the class members if anyone learned something about a partner that had not been known before. Allow students to share what they learned. Conclude the lesson with "I like myself. I like you." Let's give ourselves a pat on the back today.

If class pictures have been taken, use these to make a bulletin board, but if they are not available, ask the students to bring in a snapshot that you could use. If necessary, bring a camera and take your own pictures.

Arrange the pictures on a bulletin board with a characteristic describing the person. Every few days change the characteristic yourself or have students add different ones. Be sure to have as a characteristic that a person is Black or white but don't have it for each one, of course. Be careful to change it around every few days.

Lesson 3—At Times, May Not Like Self

The first two lessons were about liking yourself and that it is acceptable to like yourself and to be your friend. The idea to be developed in Lesson 3 is that possibly times will occur when a person might not like him/herself. To feel this way sometimes is natural and acceptable. Explore why a person feels this way, what may have caused these feelings, and what should be done about them.

Begin this discussion by asking class members to think of a time when each did not like self. If you have a hard time getting ideas from the class, give an illustration of your own, such as when you had not performed well on a test. In fact, for the teacher to share personal feelings with the class during these discussions is a good idea. For students to understand that the teacher has some of the same feelings as other individuals is good.

After getting some ideas from class members on times when they did not feel good about themselves, try to get them to discover reasons behind these feelings. What were the causes or circumstances that precipitated these feelings? Then ask the class what they did to get rid of the feeling of not liking oneself.

End the lesson on a positive note. Tell the students that these feelings of not liking oneself are acceptable, but, of course, we want to like ourselves most of the time.

Lesson 4—Feeling and Feeling Talk

This lesson involves feelings and feeling talk. Start this lesson by smiling at the class and asking them what you might be feeling. Yawn and rub your eyes, frown, or show amazement and ask what might be your feelings. Get the students to give some different feelings. You might want to list them on the chalkboard. Ask if they have some feelings that they like and some that they dislike. Have them explain why.

The idea is that you should listen to your feelings because they tell you when you need to take care of yourself. Sometimes feelings are hidden. Ask class members to describe a situation when they kept their feelings to themselves. Discuss how it felt to keep it inside instead of talking to someone about how you felt.

Is it all right to feel anger? Discuss this question, then tell the class that anger also is an acceptable feeling. Ask them about other feelings and if they are acceptable. Leave them with the idea that feelings of anger and fear are acceptable.

Now that feelings have been established as acceptable, the teacher needs to develop how one expresses these feelings without hurting or upsetting another person. Palmer (1977) suggested some good examples to follow, such as: I am angry. I am sad. I want to be left alone. I feel very upset right now.

It may take much discussion for students to recognize and understand the secret to feeling talk is to start with "I" instead of "You." Say, "I am mad" instead of, "You make me mad."

Play the "I Think, I Feel, I Want Game" (Palmer, 1977, p. 35). Each child chooses a partner and they sit facing each other. They start each sentence with one of the previous statements. To help the students get started, teachers may ask them to tell how they would feel if a great big bear wandered into the room. How would they feel if everyone was invited to a birthday party except them? How would they feel if a Black boy or girl asked them to a party? How would they feel if a white boy or girl invited them to a party? How would they feel if someone called them a name? How would they feel if someone used an undesirable racial designation in addressing them?

Children need to learn to express their feelings to others, and these activities with partners are a step in that direction. By learning to talk openly in the classroom with a partner, they may carry it over into other situations at school and at home.

Encourage the students to use "feeling talk" with their friends and family. The teacher should be aware of situations at school where students can be reminded to express themselves with "feeling talk."

Lesson 5—Think, Feel, Want

Reinforce feeling talk in this lesson by having the children play the "I Think, I Feel, I Want Game" but do it a little differently than previously in Lesson 4. Have different pairs of students volunteer to act out with words how they feel about certain situations. The teacher might want to use a situation that has occurred at school that needs some redirecting in the feeling talk used or the student's reaction to it.

If the teacher cannot develop original situations to use, J. D. Grambs (1968), *Intergroup Education,* included open-ended scripts in the appendix. Shaftel and Shaftel (1967), *Role Playing for Social Values,* offered original and stimulating unfinished stories for classroom use.

Lesson 6—Like You for Various Reasons

Have the children make tags of paper containing the words "I Like You." The idea on which to work in this lesson is that we like people for many different reasons, but we do not dislike a person just because of skin color.

Many different materials exist that a teacher may use to help the children see Black persons in a more realistic light. The teacher may read a story about a Black family or show a film which depicts good interracial interactions. A book such as *Role Model Blacks: Known But Little Known Role Models of Successful Blacks* by C. L. Miller (1982) may be quite helpful.

Regardless of the material used, the presentation of material should be followed by a good, open discussion so that students have an opportunity to express their ideas and feelings and the teacher can point out some fallacies in thinking. Time, often much time, is required for students to change their ways of thinking and one such lesson probably will not be enough. At this point the teacher may need to present additional lessons using moral dilemmas (see example in Chapter 2).

Lesson 7—Different and Acceptable

The theme for this lesson is "You can be different and still be acceptable." Have students think of at least one way they differ from the person sitting in front or behind. If any handicapped children are in the class or school, this lesson is good to explore those differences and to help students come to understand handicapping conditions.

Ask different pairs of children to volunteer to be in front of the class. Ask how they are different from each other. When a white and Black child are paired together, get the children to point out differences in hair texture. Have students explore differences in skin texture.

After pointing out some obvious physical differences, ask the class if they can identify other ways people are different. The teacher may have to give examples, such as one student is a good basketball player and another can draw well. Go into as much detail in differences as needed and be open and honest in discussion of these differences. Do not avoid anything students bring up.

Write across the board IT'S OK TO BE DIFFERENT. Ask students to look around them in school and at home to discover ways in which they are different from others and how others are different from them. While thinking of these differences, remember that we must learn to appreciate differences because "Different is OK."

Lesson 8—Differences Are Essential

Today make tags that contain the words "It's OK to be different." On a flannel board arrange three or four identical figures. Start the discussion by asking the students to choose which one of the figures is "Mary." Of course, they cannot do this by looking at them because they are all the same. Ask students if there might be some way in which they could tell the females apart if they looked identical. They might suggest such things as the way they talked, acted, or walked. After getting answers to this question, go a step further and ask what would we do if everyone not only looked alike but acted alike and talked alike. Get the class members to see that it would be a very boring world in which if we all looked, acted, and talked alike. Differences are important.

On the flannel board, arrange figures of peoples of different ages, race, size, and sex. After pointing out all the differences the class can identify, tell the students that not only are these people different, but that these differences are important. Suggest ways they think that they are important. Whatever their answers, probe as to why they feel this way.

This lesson can be concluded by stating that each one in the class is important just because they are themselves and they don't need any other reasons. They are different from each other and these differences are important.

Lesson 9—I Am Important

The tags that the children are to make and wear today contain the words "I am Important." Ask students what they have been thinking regarding being important. Have they had any new ideas and thoughts on being important? After this discussion, point out to the class that if they are important, then everyone else is important, too. Try to get students to tie in all the different ideas that have been themes of the last eight lessons—that we should like ourselves; that we should like others; that feelings are acceptable and it is important to use "feeling talk" to express ourselves; that differences are acceptable, in fact, they are necessary for a better, more interesting world; that we do not dislike a person because he/she is different; and that everyone is important.

Summary Regarding Lesson Plans

These lesson plans are only skeleton ideas. Each presents a slightly different idea or concept which the teacher might wish to expand.

The teacher may want to spend two, three, or more time periods on any one idea. Considerable time might be spent on Black/white relations as a final (tenth) lesson. With older children, the teacher should adjust the content to more age or grade level appropriate material.

These lesson plans could be used as a spring board, a stepping stone, a beginning for the development of the teacher's own ideas. Remember that the educational task is to recognize contemporary needs and to develop deliberate problems of education and re-education about the many groups that make up America, its history, and the world in which we live.

OTHER RACIAL-ETHNIC GROUPS

The same strategies, techniques, and personal belief system necessary for teaching Black students are useful in working with any other racial or ethnic group. No less sensitivity is needed in working with Chicano, Latins, American Indian, or Oriental American than is needed for Black Americans. Teachers should seek to understand children's behavior in terms of all forces which tend to impact on their behavior. The cultural background may provide some useful information in helping understand children from diverse backgrounds. Teachers are cautioned to remember that generalized cultural differences may serve to hamper educational advancement because it appears that culturally different subgroups are alike in many ways. The "self-fulfilling prophecy" pattern should be avoided with all racially different groups. Washington and Lee (1981) summarized the challenge thusly:

> School administrators, teachers, and counselors must share responsibility to develop innovative educational philosophies and methods that meet children's needs. In meeting the needs of [minority] children, school personnel must challenge false assumptions about the cognitive skills and affective states of minority children. Secondly, school personnel must actively seek stronger relationships with...parents and community groups. Third, advocacy roles for [minority] children must become integral tasks of educators. This advocacy role should evolve from the institutions' recognition of cultural divergence. (p. 64)

EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

When the 94th Congress of the United States enacted a law which provided for the "Education of All Handicapped Children" in 1975, the status of public education began a rapid change. What has come to be generally referred to as P.L. 94-142 (the 142nd law passed by the 94th Congress) was designed to

> assure that all handicapped children (between the ages of 3 and 21 inclusive) have available to them,...a free appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs, to assure that the rights of handicapped children and their parents or guardians are

> protected, to assist States and localities to provide for the education of all handicapped children, and to assess and assure the effectiveness of efforts to educate handicapped children. (Section 3 of the Act)

The law specifically defined some of the terms used in the act. The term "special education" means

> specifically designed instruction, at no cost to parents or guardians, to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child, including classroom instruction, instruction in physical education, home instruction, and instruction in hospital and institutions. (Section 4 (a) (16) of the Act)

The term "related services" was defined as including

> transportation, and such developmental, corrective, other supportive services (including speech pathology, audiology, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation, medical and counseling services) as may be required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education, and includes the early identification and assessment of handicapping conditions in children. (Section 4 (a) (17) of the Act)

"Free appropriate public education" was defined in the law

> as special education and related services which (A) have been provided at public expense, under public supervision and direction, without charge, (B) meet the standards of the State educational agency, (C) include and appropriate preschool, elementary, or secondary school education in the State involved, and (D) are provided in conformity with the individualized education program required. (Section 3 (c) of the Act)

The required "individualized education program" means a

> written statement for each handicapped child developed in any meeting by a representative of the local educational agency or an intermediate education unit who shall be qualified to provide, or supervise the provision of, specially designed instruction to meet the unique needs of handicapped children, the teacher, the parents or guardian of such child, and whenever appropriate, such child, which statement shall include (A) a state of the present levels of educational performance of such child (B) a statement of annual goals, including short term instructional objectives, (C) a statement of the specific educational services to be provided to such child, and the extent to which such child will be able to participate in regular educational programs, (D) the projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of such services and (E) appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least an annual basis, whether instructional objectives are being achieved. (Section 4 (a) (19) of the Act)

Each State has the responsibility to develop eligibility criteria, assessment and screening procedures, and process procedures for developing the Individualized Education Program (IEP). To help understand these areas, we have chosen exact samples from some States to illustrate how the eligibility criteria (Table 8.2) are identified and how guidelines are developed for comprehensive screening and assessment (Table 8.3).

The tasks involved in the development of the Individualized Education Program (IEP) for each handicapped child are probably best understood if one follows through steps involved. The IEP is to be completed by a team of persons. Team members usually are selected from among the following:

1. principal (or designee) as chairperson
2. teacher referring child
3. chairperson for special education (or designee)
4. teacher of exceptional children may be
5. psychologist
6. social worker
7. school counselor
8. speech, language, and hearing specialist
9. physician or school nurse
10. physical therapist
11. occupational therapist
12. physical education teacher
13. recreation specialist
14. referring agency personnel
15. parent(s)

The steps involved in the development of the IEP are described in the following eleven steps.

STEP 1 Identifying Information

Information including the child's name, birthdate, age at time of the IEP development, school and class should be filled in wherever requested on the form.

If the child spends part of his/her time in one class (such as a learning center) and part of the time elsewhere (such as a regular class), both locations should be noted.

TABLE 8.2

Eligibility Criteria (Sample State) for IEP

The following criteria are taken from the Administrative Regulations of the sample state:

Crippled and Other Health Impaired. A pupil shall be eligible for enrollment in a program for crippled and other health impaired if a licensed physician determines that he/she is physically unable to attend regular class. A medical statement by a licensed physician shall be on file in the central office.

Mentally Handicapped Pupils. Pupils who meet the definition pursuant to (the regulations) and who obtain intelligence quotient scores between 50 and 75 on individual intelligence tests shall be eligible for enrollment in programs for the educable mentally handicapped. Pupils whose intelligence score is borderline may be placed in a program for the educable mentally handicapped on a trial basis upon the recommendation of the appropriate admissions and release committee. "Trial basis" shall be a period of time no longer than four months, at which time the placement decision shall be reviewed by the appropriate admissions and release committee in consultation with the teacher in whose classroom the pupil was enrolled. The evaluation of pupils referred for identification and placement purposes shall consist of:

a. The referring persons's assessment of the pupil's specific strengths and weaknesses in the academic and behavioral areas.
b. A behavioral observation of the referred pupil in familiar surroundings (i.e., classroom, playground, etc.)
c. Formal and informal educational evaluation data composed of individual and/or group standardized academic achievement tests and assessment of basic skill areas such as reading, math, and language.
d. A developmental history.
e. An individual psychological assessment utilizing a recognized standardized measure of individual intelligence.
f. In cases where vision, hearing, or serious emotional disturbance is suspected to be the primary handicapping condition, a referral for appropriate assessments by qualified professional(s) shall be made.
g. Evaluations of referred pupils shall be completed by persons who are qualified to perform such evaluations.

Trainable Mentally Handicapped Pupils. Pupils who meet the definition pursuant to (the regulations) and who obtain intelligence quotient scores below 50 on individual intelligence tests shall be eligible for enrollment in programs for the trainable Mentally Handicapped.

The evaluation of pupils referred for indentification and placement purposes shall consist of:

a. The referring person's assessment of the pupil's specific strengths and weaknesses in the academic and behavioral areas.
b. A behavioral observation of the referred pupil in familiar surroundings (i.e., classroom, playground, etc.)
c. A measure of social competence.
d. An assessment of basic skills areas such as reading, math, and language.

TABLE 8.2 Continued

e. A developmental history.
f. An individual psychological assessment utilizing a recognized standardized measure of individual intelligence.
g. In cases where vision, hearing, orthopedic handicaps or serious emotional disturbance is suspected to be the primary handicapping condition, a referral for appropriate assessments by qualified professional(s) shall be made.
h. Evaluations of referred pupils shall be completed by persons who are qualified to perform such evaluations.

Children with Learning Disabilities (Neurologically Impaired). Pupils who meet the definition pursuant to (the regulations) shall be eligible for enrollment for children with learning disabilities.

The assessment of the referred pupil for identification and placement purposes shall consist of:

a. The referring person's assessment of the pupil's specific strengths and weaknesses in the academic and behavioral area.
b. A behavioral observation of the referred pupil in familiar surroundings (i.e., classroom, playground, etc.)
c. Individual and/or group standardized achievement test(s) of basic skills.
d. A group measure of current intellectual functioning. In those few cases where the pupil performs below minus one standard deviation on the group measure, an individual measure of intelligence shall be administered by qualified personnel.
e. In cases where vision, hearing, or serious emotional disturbance is suspected to be the primary handicapping condition, a referral for appropriate assessments by qualified professional(s) shall be made.

Emotionally Disturbed (Behavior Disorders). Pupils shall be eligible for enrollment in a program for the emotionally disturbed (behavior disorders) whose emotional and behavioral disorders indicate they can benefit from a modified learning environment and an instructional program compatible with their individual learning needs. Such pupils may demonstrate varying degrees of the following:

a. Inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors.
b. A variety of extreme behavior patterns ranging from hyperactive, impulsive responses to depression and withdrawal.
c. A general, pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
d. A persistent inability to establish and maintain meaningful interpersonal relationships.
e. A tendency to develop physical symptoms such as speech problems, pains, and fears, assoicated with personal and/or school problems.

The assessment of the referred pupil for identification and placement purposes shall consist of:

a. The referring person's assessment of the referred pupil's specific strengths and weaknesses in the behavioral and academic areas.
b. A behavior observation of the referred pupil in familiar surroundings (i.e., classroom, playground, etc.)
c. Individual and/or group standardized achievement test(s) which measures performance in reading,

TABLE 8.2 Continued

arithmetic, and other basic skill areas.
d. A developmental and social history.
e. Individual psychological, psychiatric, and/or medical evaluation(s) when recommended by appropriate school authorities.

Speech Handicapped (Communication Disorders). Any pupil having a speech handicap/communication disorder shall be eligible for placement. Admission shall be based upon evaluation and/or recommendation by personnel certified by the Department of Education.

Children with Visual Handicaps. A pupil shall be eligible for enrollment in a program for the visually handicapped if an eye specialist certifies that he/she has a visual acuity of 20/70 or less in the better eye after correction.

An eye examination report, completed and signed by an eye specialist shall be obtained. The admissions and release committee shall obtain and review any additional reports, information and assessment that it deems necessary for the placement of each individual child in an appropriate educational program.

Multiple Handicapped Children. Pupils who meet the definition pursuant to (the regulations) shall be eligible for enrollment in programs for the multiple handicapped.

The evaluation of pupils referred for placement in programs for the multiple handicapped shall include a comprehensive, individual child evaluation. This evaluation shall incude a developmental and social history, a medical evaluation, an individual psychological assessment of current intellectual functioning, and any additional reports, information and assessments deemed necessary by the admissions and release committee for the appropriate placement of each child.

Deaf-Blind Children. "Deaf-blind" children includes any child whose combination of handicaps of deafness and blindness prevents him/her from profiting satisfactorily from educational programs provided for the blind child or the deaf child.

Before educational placement for deaf-blind children can be considered, appropriate evaluations of the child shall be made by qualified personnel and a copy of the evaluation report forwarded to the Bureau of Education for Exceptional Children.

The eligibility of the child for placement in a special educational facility for deaf-blind children is based upon the following criteria:

a. The child has both a vision and hearing loss so severe that he/she cannot make educational process in existing state residential programs for the deaf or for the blind.
b. All efforts have been exhausted for provision of educational programs for the child in a public school program for the deaf or for the blind.
c. All efforts have been exhausted for placement of the child in existing state supported programs offering special adaptations of standard educational programs and practices.
d. The parents have followed through on the recommendations made by medical, psychological and/or educational evaluations.

Hearing Impaired Children. A pupil shall be eligible for enrollment in a program for the hearing impaired whose primary handicap is a hearing loss ranging from mild to profound to such a degree that he/she does not use normal communication skills effectively.

NOTE. From *Rules Governing Programs and Services for Children With Special Needs* (pp. 2-4), 1978, Raleigh, NC: Department of Public Instruction. (No copyright.)

TABLE 8.3

Screening and Assessment Procedures (Sample State) for IEP

Screening and assessment are the responsibility of the school-based committee and professionals qualified to administer and determine the results of certain technical (clinical) tests which are designed to screen or assess a pupil's strengths and weaknesses in specific areas of learning. Such professionals might be available within the city and county school administrative units or from other appropriate agencies (i.e., mental health centers, public health departments, and developmental evaluation clinics):

1. **Screening.** Screening should be done to determine if the child is eligible for further consideration for special education services. Appropriate screening may eliminate unnecessary referrals for psychologicals and other in-depth assessment. The child's existing school records, including work samples, shall be collected and analyzed. Other screening information could include physical health information, educational data, and informal social behavior data.
2. **Assessment.** The assessment of an exceptional child must be multi-factored and multi-disciplinary in order to provide a comprehensive view of the child from the perspective of the school, home, and community. In addition to ability and achievement data, information on physical condition, sociocultural background, and adaptive behavior in the home and school should be gathered, considered, and weight should be given to each.
3. **Parental Permission.** When screening and/or assessment require the administration of instruments, interviews, or other procedures used selectively with an individual child, (not given to everyone in the child's class, grade, or school), written parental permission must be obtained. Within 30 days of the referral, the local education agency shall send a written notice to the parents or guardians describing the evaluation procedures to be followed and requesting consent for the evaluations.
4. If the parent(s) or guardian(s) consents, the local educational agency shall provide or cause to be provided an appropriate assessment within 30 calendar days after sending the notice. If the parent does not consent, the local educational agency may obtain a due process hearing on the failure of the parent to consent, pursuant to .1517 of this Section.
5. **Types of Assessment.** Types of assessments for determining eligibility for special educational services include, but are not limited to, the following:
    a. educational assessment,
    b. psychological evaluation,
    c. adaptive behavior evaluation,
    d. psychomotor evaluation,
    e. vision and hearing screening and evaluation,
    f. medical screening and evaluation,
    g. speech and language development evaluation,
    h. audiological evaluation,
    i. otological evaluation,
    j. opthalmological or optometric evaluation,
    k. vocational evaluation.

TABLE 8.3 Continued

6. **Racially and Culturally Unbiased Evaluations.** All test and evaluation materials and procedures utilized for the purposes of evaluation and placement of children with special needs will be selected and administered so as not to be racially or culturally discriminatory. Such materials and procedures will be provided and administered in the child's native language or mode of communication, unless it clearly is not feasible to do so, and no single procedure shall be the sole criterion for determining an appropriate educational program for a child. Test results should accurately reflect the child's aptitude, achievement level, or whatever other factor the test purports to measure, rather than reflecting the child's impaired sensory, manual, or speaking skills, except when such skills are the factors which the tests purport to measure.

NOTE. From *Rules Governing Programs and Services for Children with Special Needs* (pp. 15-16), 1978, Raleigh, NC: Department of Public Instruction. (No copyright.)

STEP 2 Hours/Days Per Week in Mainstream

Note how much time the student will receive instruction in a regular classroom with nonhandicapped students. Also note hours/days per week in regular and/or adaptive physical education

STEP 3 Special Notations

In this area the team should note any information that is relative to the child's well being and ability to profit from an educational program. This might include use of medication, significant allergic conditions, eating problems, particular fears, need frequent rest periods, and so forth.

STEP 4 Student Profile (Outlining Areas of Need or Concern)

The first task of the team in the planning function is to review the information gathered during the child evaluation process. These should not be viewed from the perspective of usefulness to the team as a basis for developing an IEP.

Using this information, the team should list the child's present levels of performance in each learning area, including both strengths and weaknesses and areas possibly in need of intervention from support services. Areas to be considered as a minimum should include academic achievement, language development, psychomotor skills, social adaptation, self-help skills, pre-vocational and vocational skills, as well as any other relevant areas.

STEP 5 Prioritized Annual Goals (Long Term—as Related to Present Level of Performance)

One of the first decisions that the team has to make in developing and implementing the IEP is where to start. This process is called prioritizing, which means deciding which needs should be addressed first. The following is a list of critical areas to consider in making this important decision:

a. priority parental concerns
b. priority teacher concerns
c. appropriate developmental sequences of tasks or behaviors which appear to be the most modifiable, as determined from baseline assessment date, including the child's strengths, weaknesses and learning style.

Goal statements will be used as a basis for specifying services that the child will receive. The number of goal statements needed is dependent upon the child's need and may range from one to several. Care should be taken not to have so many goal statements that accomplishment is impossible. In the case of a child with many needs, the team should concentrate initially on high priority goals, and later move to other areas.

STEP 6 Writing Short-term Instructional Goals

For each of the long-term goals outlined in Step 5, the team will develop several short-term objectives for the instructional program, i.e., statements describing, in specific, objective and measurable terms, the intermediate steps which together will help the child to accomplish the goal. Short term, in this case, refers to several periods of time within the long-term goal; the actual length of time chosen is up to the team. For example, team members may choose to set short-term objectives to correspond in time to each reporting period. Or they may choose to set weekly objectives or bi-annual objectives.

STEP 7 Services and Resources

Specific educational and/or support services and resources should be listed for each of the short-term instructional goals stated in the plan. These statements will be in general terms, and will define the service areas in which implementation will occur. This area would include service areas such as regular or special classroom instruction, transportation, social services, or therapy.

STEP 8 Persons(s) Responsible for Implementation

Within each service or goal area, the team should assign a specific person who will be responsible for seeing that objectives in his/her service area are met. This person will in most cases be the implementer who will later develop the Individual Implementation Plan for that area.

STEP 9 Review Dates

According to P.L. 94-142 a review must be at least on an annual basis.

STEP 10 Recommendations and Justification for Placement

The final task of the team in completing the IEP will be to decide upon a placement recommendation. This placement should reflect the program provided by the school system where the services are needed by the child, as already indicated on the form, will best be delivered. It also should reflect state criteria for eligibility and capabilities of the school system. A short justification for the selection of a particular placement option should be written by the team.

STEP 11 Completion of Forms

Once the plan has been determined all the information should be recorded on a form. Dates on which meetings were held should be noted and each person who participated should sign the form. Copies should be distributed to appropriate persons.

The knowledge about P.L. 94-142, eligibility criteria, screening procedures, and steps involved in the development of the Individual Education Program is pertinent to all classroom teachers. The "least restrictive environment" clause [Section 612 (5) (B) of the Act] suggests that not all children will be educated in special classes. The clause does not mandate that all children be "mainstreamed" into regular classes, in fact the term "mainstream" is used at no place in the legislation. Realistically, the regular classroom teacher will have responsibility for many children who, as a result of an IEP developed along lines recommended previously, are defined as handicapped in P.L. 94-142. Teachers are reminded that government regulations involving the education of handicapped children change frequently. A careful review of regulations, on a periodic basis, should mean that teachers are operating with the most recent information.

The most frequent structure the regular classroom teacher is likely to find will be a "handicapped" child placed in the regular classroom where supportive help is provided by a resource teacher. This structure allows the resource teacher to intervene educationally with individuals who can remain in the regular classroom environment. The resource teacher suggests remedial strategies and procedures which the regular teacher incorporates in teaching the identified students. The resource teacher also can provide diagnostic or prescriptive information to the regular teacher. This demands that the regular teacher implement educational as well as remedial goals and objectives, with support and direction from the resource teacher. In this model, the resource teacher and the regular classroom teacher are jointly responsible for recordkeeping and general monitoring of the student's progress. This is true even where identified students receive direct instruction from the resource teacher within the classroom.

This model is designed only for children where the regular classroom, supplemented with resource support, is the "least restrictive educational environment." To ensure maximum benefits from such an arrangement, the regular classroom teacher should be given class size consideration when the classroom is assigned one or more handicapped students.

Once a handicapped student has been assigned to a regular classroom teacher, that teacher is responsible for implementing recommendations made in the IEP. The teacher should develop an Individual Implementation Plan which will include specific learning activities (methods, materials, and media) to monitor performance. These learning activities are best stated as behavioral objectives. McAshan (1970) and Kibler, Cegala, Miles, and Barker (1974) stated that behavioral objectives must include four components

1. **Who.** State the name of the child who is to perform the activity.

2. **Who will do what.** State the response expected from the child once he/she has learned the skill.

3. **Under what conditions.** Specify how much aid, what type of assistance, or the particular circumstances in which the child will perform the behavior.

4. **To what degree of success.** Specify how successfully the child must perform the task to reach the criterion established. There is a relationship between conditions and degree of success. If conditions are too difficult for the child, then a 90% or 100% level of performance cannot be expected.

Having to confront the requirements of P.L. 94-142 will likely prove stressful for the regular teacher. The challenges presented with the presence of a handicapped child in the regular classroom are likely to necessitate significant changes in the regular classroom environment. The following two examples demonstrate some of the concerns of teachers.

Case Illustration: Math Teacher

I am glad that I was invited to this meeting. I understand that the special education people are required to write an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) on each special student to assure that each child is placed properly. That is exactly why I am here. I want to say, for the record, that Frank West is inappropriately placed in my math class.

When I spoke to Frank's special class teacher I made it clear that I was willing to experiment with Frank. I'd seen him around—a sort of surley, withdrawn kid—but he didn't look as retarded as the others in that class. His teacher said that Frank was ready to do more math work and she told me that he could add, subtract, multiply, and divide and that he had a good understanding of multiple operations. Well, the kids in my class, which is business and shop math, can do about that much. Truly some do much less but I figured that Frank would fit right in.

Well, his teacher was right. Frank has all of the operations learned but the kid can't reach much beyond a second grade level! What that means is he can't follow directions in his math book when I assign a page, and he can't read any of the word problems, banking directions, puzzles, or anything else. To top it all off, his penmanship is horrendous! He can barely do any cursive writing.

I sympathize with the special ed teacher's situation. The pendulum swings again and now we're turning handsprings trying to include the slower kids in the "mainstream." I think it's a fine idea for those who can do the work. But I have 18 other kids in Frank's math class and I can't spend all my time with him. He knows he's below average. Don't make it worse on Frank by keeping him in my room. Put him back where he belongs.

Case Illustration:
Shop Teacher

I am the industrial arts teacher at Crescent Point High School. I've been here for 12 years and I teach basic manual training, metal and automotive shop. I have had Frank in my classes all three years.

Kids, they're all the same to me. Special ed kid, slow learner, tough guy, you name it. We set up the rules right away and none of them give me any major trouble or back talk.

Now, we all know that the kids who take the entire sequence of Industrial Arts courses are not your college bound, upper middle class kids. The kids I teach are the potential drop outs, blue collar and military material. I teach them to work quickly, efficiently, to get the job done on time and to obey orders—all the skills they'll need to hold down a job later.

He follows directions well enough but I always pair him with one of the better readers in the group. West can barely read but he pays attention and get his jobs finished. I do some basic reading with the students who can't read. I go over new words that apply to each project and have the kids read, write, and spell each word before they begin a new project.

West learns the words well enough, will get them on paper into sentences, if he feels like it, and remembers them pretty well. The boy can really do it if he tries.

But I can't hold up the whole class for the few who have special problems and when West gets behind he's not the kind of kid you're dying to help. He gets mean. I caught him smoking in the auto body shop (the day he was trying to avoid a difficult assignment) and I explained that I'd have to turn him in. He cussed something fierce and slammed a hammer into a pile of metal scraps. When he's angry he mutters under his breath—he wouldn't dare talk to me that way aloud—and he is a very difficult kid with which to get along.

I'm not suggesting that he be removed from shop. No, he needs the mechanical skills so he won't end up on welfare, leeching off the taxpayer's money. But there's a lot of water gone under the dam. He's not a kid with whom I particularly want to work but he should graduate from high school. If he'd quit fooling around and change his attitude, he could make it.

Questions

The following questions are based on the two preceding cases.

1. What are your spontaneous responses to the concerns raised by teachers?

2. In what ways do you agree with "regular" teachers in these situations? In what ways do you agree with efforts to "mainstream" students involved?

3. Based on your responses to the two previous questions, what directions do you think the rest of the meetings will take?

4. What would you recommend for Frank West? Why?

5. Based on all available information, what outcomes do you forsee?

Steps for Teaching Handicapped Students

The regular classroom teacher can take steps to make the job of teaching handicapped students easier. These steps are as follows:

1. Seek training that is specifically concerned with teaching handicapped students.

2. Be aware of individual abilities of students and accept them as individuals who can and want to learn.

3. Reinforce positive self-concepts in handicapped children. Help "regular" students accept the handicapped and work toward meeting their needs.

4. Work closely with teachers of handicapped children, vocational education teachers, vocational rehabilitation counselors, school counselors, and other personnel to make sure that instruction is appropriate for the handicapped.

5. Refer special problems to special teachers when necessary but try to deal with minor problems on an individual basis in the classroom.

6. Work closely with the special teacher in grading the students on an individual basis rather than comparing them with "regular" students.

7. Adjust teaching techniques so that all students can succeed in learning.

8. Use a multi-media approach in teaching handicapped students. Employ a wide range of instructional methods in teaching.

9. Inform handicapped students that you expect them to learn, but be certain that your expectations of them are reasonable and realistic.

10. Demonstrate a genuine interest in all students, including the handicapped.

11. Become involved in joint planning efforts with other teachers who are serving the same students.

12. Learn available community resources and how to use the resources established to serve the handicapped.

TEACHING THE GIFTED OR TALENTED

We cannot discuss special populations in the schools without giving some attention to those students who are academically gifted or possess some exceptional talent. The school environment should be such that the maximum number of gifted or talented students will emerge. Such an environment should stimulate the gifted or talented students to participate actively in some school, class, or small group to accomplish some undertaking or to engage in some creative endeavors.

The gifted or talented student, no less than the average child or the handicapped child, must have experiences through which he/she can discover potential and significant ways to use that potential. *Intelligence or talent has no functional importance until it is directed toward some significant purpose.* Equally significant the gifted or talented student must discover his/her limitations.

The academically gifted child frequently finds great satisfaction in reading. This ability may be useful in allowing the gifted student to tutor students in the class. The gifted or talented student needs to participate in many varied activities in the school if their giftedness or talent is to be encouraged. The school has an obligation to provide for each student experiences that will further that student's power to create in fields where special aptitudes exist.

Sensitive teachers and counselors must work to maintain a proper balance between intellectual and social interests and contributions of gifted or talented students. This balance is absolutely necessary if these youth are to gain and retain social leadership and social effectiveness.

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CHAPTER 9

CAREER AND VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

This chapter is organized into three sections. In the first section is described the major changes or crises which may contribute to the high unemployment rate among teenagers, minorities, and women. In the second section, four career and vocational developmental theories are examined. These theories may be viewed as a guide to helping students select careers. Section three is intended to help teachers develop a career education program which may be incorporated into the curriculum.

Guidance became an integral part of education because of its association with vocations. Guidance still has as one of its primary objectives the smooth transition of students from an educational setting to a work setting. Therefore, vocational preparation must be a main thrust of every school curriculum. However, some factors which impact on individuals and which often result in major changes in career development patterns must be understood by teachers.

FACTORS WHICH CONTRIBUTE TO MAJOR CHANGES IN INDIVIDUAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Factors which contribute to crises or changes in an individual's life and ultimately in career development are discussed in previous chapters of this text, therefore, in this section will be described a few major factors. These are environmental, economic, social, or cultural factors which influence career development.

Drop-Out

A considerable number of students drop out of school when they reach the legal age to leave school (sixteen years old in most states). These students often cite as a major reason for leaving school as "school is a waste of time because it does not prepare me for a job." They report the classes which they are required to take as being irrelevant, not interesting, or boring. Some students come from homes which have financial problems. One or both parents may be unemployed and the family is finding that they are unable to pay bills. This condition may result in some students leaving school and seeking full-time employment. However, after they leave school they often find it difficult to secure worthwhile employment because of their lack of education. Some of them eventually return to school in the evenings and obtain a high school diploma.

Pregnant Teenager

A teenager who becomes pregnant often leaves school prior to graduation. After she gives birth, her problems may continue. For example, many of today's pregnant teenagers are unmarried and will have no one to look after the child. Some of these teenagers return home and their parents help rear the child. While some of these teenagers may return to school, some never do. The career aspirations of these teenagers may need to be postponed for many years.

Drug and Alcohol Abuse

Drug and alcohol abuse by students is widespread. Teachers may find that students of various grade levels including some fifth grade students smoke marijuana and drink alcoholic beverages regularly. These students may even come to class under the influence of drugs and alcohol. Because of a decreased level of awareness, these students often fall asleep in class and fail to do their school work. In addition, continued use of drugs and alcohol may cause these students to be absent from school and eventually to drop out of school.

Teenage Delinquent

Some teenagers find themselves in trouble with the police and have a record before they are eighteen. Sometimes students find a need to steal and break the law in other ways to keep a drug and alcohol habit. Some of these teenagers may spend time in detention homes. Students who are doing time in detention homes are not preparing for a career. When these teenagers are released, they often find that because of a police record, obtaining employment is difficult.

Minorities and Women

While membership in either of these groups does not suggest similar characteristics as other groups in this section, there are unique career needs for both minorities and women. Some writers have gone so far as to suggest that existing career development theories do not address the unique needs of minorities and women. In any case, large numbers of minority persons are unemployed, many because they were drop-outs, push-outs, became pregnant, were delinquent, or became involved in drugs or alcohol. Others have suffered simply because of membership in a minority group.

All of the previous factors contribute to unemployment or underemployment. In addition, students are graduating from high school only to find that they have not been prepared adequately to enter the world of work. The goal of every school should be to prepare all students in such a way that they can be fully employable when they leave school.

Teachers are obligated to educate their students not only in the subject matter areas but also about career opportunities. Most teachers have some knowledge about opportunities available to students in the community. Using knowledge of the community, knowledge of career theories, and specific information about students, teachers can incorporate career information in the curriculum.

Activities

1. *Interview an administrator or a school board member. What career programs, if any, have been developed to help the potential drop-out?*

2. *Are there any agencies in your community which help the pregnant teenager? If so, how does the agency help?*

3. *Where can a teenager with a drug or alcohol related problem go for help in your community? Do those agencies work with the school?*

4. *Visit a detention home in your community. What provisions does it have, if any, for the vocational training or education of the teenager?*

5. *Visit your local State Employment Service. What types of jobs are being filled by minorities and by women? Describe any special programs available to members of either group.*

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

This section is designed to acquaint the teacher with four career development theories. The first theory, the trait and factor approach, was selected because of its historical significance. Anne Roe's theory was selected because it assumes that a child's home environment influences career decisions. John Holland's theory was selected because it views career development as a theory consisting of personality types. Finally, Donald Super's theory was selected because it views career development as a life-long process.

Descriptions of the four career development theories as presented in this chapter are in a brief summary form. For those who desire a more detailed explanation of the career theories, a list of references is provided at the end of this chapter which also includes career theorists such as Ginzberg, Hoppock, and Krumboltz.

Trait and Factor Approach

In the early 1900s, Frank Parsons became interested in work for the people of Boston. Although Parsons is considered to be the Father of Guidance, he was an engineer and lawyer. His trait and factor approach to finding jobs for people was rather mechanical and straightforward. The procedure which he called "true reasoning" consisted of three steps:

> 1. A clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and their causes.
>
> 2. A knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work.
>
> 3. True reasoning on the relations of these two groups of factors. (Parsons, 1909, p. 5)

This approach used the interview technique to determine the client's aptitudes, interests, and abilities. During Parsons' time, no aptitude, interest, or ability tests were available. This approach assumed that the counselor or helper knew something about the world of work. Finally, the counselor attempted to match the client with a job.

Two obvious limitations exist to this approach. First, the assumption was that an individual had only one job for which he/she was best suited. Second, an individual was required to make a career choice at a given period of time. Nevertheless, this approach found jobs for people who otherwise would have continued to be unemployed.

The trait and factor approach generally is considered to have major shortcomings in reference to the fact that newer theories emphasize the importance of self-concept and the life-long process of career development. However, Parkinson, Bradley, and Lawson (1979) compared the three steps of Parsons' theory to recent theories and concluded that:

> Step 1 sounds much like self-concept theory today.
>
> Step 2 sounds like information seeking based on socioeconomic reality.
>
> Step 3 sounds like the beginning of a decision-making model.(p. 127)

Therefore, despite the limitations of the Trait and Factor approach, some counselors still use a similar three-step method in counseling clients about careers.

Anne Roe's Theory

Anne Roe's theory of career development began with a study of the personality of famous scientists. She concluded that the different personality types of these scientists were related, in part, to their early childhood experiences, needs, and genetic factors. These influences, therefore, contribute to the selection of a career. In addition, her theory combined the ideas of Garner Murphy and Abraham Maslow. Roe's theory is presented in Figure 9.1.

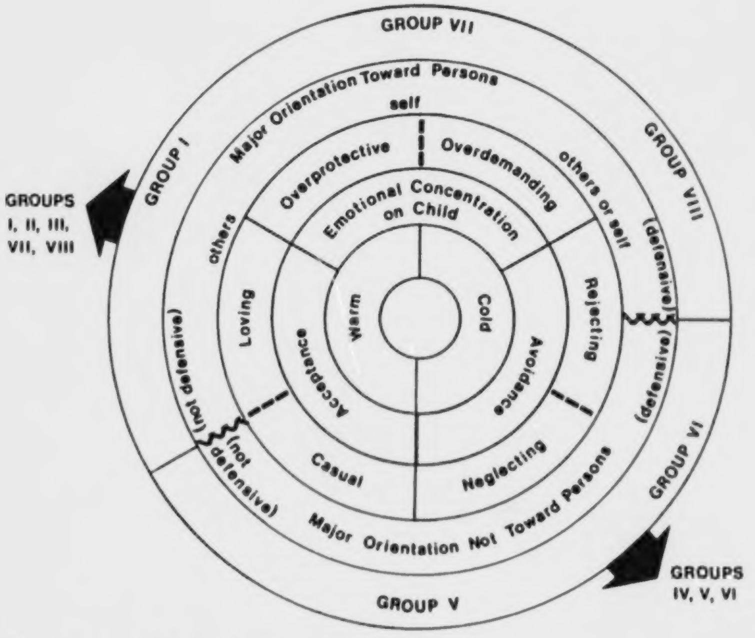
GROUP VII
Major Orientation Toward Persons
self
Overprotective
Overdemanding
Emotional Concentration on Child
GROUP I
GROUPS I, II, III, VII, VIII
others
others or self
GROUP VIII
(defensive)
Loving
Warm
Cold
Rejecting
(defensive)
(not defensive)
Acceptance
Avoidance
(not defensive)
Casual
Neglecting
GROUP VI
Major Orientation Not Toward Persons
GROUPS IV, V, VI
GROUP V

Figure 9.1. Ann Roe's career theory.

NOTE. From *The APGA Inquiry Series, No. 1* (p. 6) by A. Roe and M. Seigelman, 1964, Washington, DC: APGA. Copyright 1964 by APGA Press. Reprinted by permission.

Groups I, II, III, VII, and VIII represent service, business, business organization, general cultural, and arts and entertainment occupations respectively. Groups IV, V, and VI include technological, outdoor, and science occupations.

To read the schematic (Figure 9.1), begin by examining the innermost circle. This circle contains the words "cold" and "warm." These refer to the type of environment in which the child is reared.

For example, a child reared in a cold emotional environment may have been reared by parents who avoided the child or had an emotional concentration on the child. The avoidance category may consist of either a neglecting or a rejecting environment. On the other hand, a child reared by parents who placed much emotional concentration on the child may have parents who were overprotecting or overdemanding.

The child who was reared in a warm emotional environment may have been reared by parents in an accepting climate or an emotional concentration on the child. The accepting climate consists of either a loving or a casual environment.

Depending upon the emotional environment in which a child is reared, the child may choose an occupation whose major orientation is toward or not toward persons. Occupations which have their major orientation toward persons may include service, general cultural, and arts and entertainment groups. Those occupations not oriented toward persons may include outdoors and science groups.

Let us examine a particular occupation using Roe's theory. We have selected pharmacist (group VI). According to this theory, the pharmacist had early home relationships that were cold with avoidance of the child. These early home relationships resulted in the major orientation to become nonperson oriented. However, many pharmacists are very people oriented. This observation leads to a conclusion that this theory has obvious limitations. First, many factors influence the home environment of the child. Second, parent behaviors in child rearing practices are not consistent.

Activities

Teachers may easily utilize the following activity in helping students consider occupations. This activity incorporates the concepts of Roe's *theory strengths of family heritage and Ginzberg's fantasy and tentative stages.*

Dickenson and Parmerlee (1980) used an Occupational Family Tree as a career counseling technique. Students were asked to select an occupation during the fantasy and tentative stages based upon the occupation of the family member to whom they feel the closest and with whom they identified. The authors suggested using the following questions:

> How do you feel about the occupations of your relatives (proud, embarrassed, and so forth)?
>
> On what basis do you feel they want you to select the specific occupation (statement, hints, threats, and so forth)?
>
> Do your present occupational interests fit both your abilities and the need for such workers (aptitudes, job trends, and so forth)?
>
> List several low status (e.g., low pay or low prestige) jobs/careers that have some positive stereotypes (bus driver, hospital aid, and so forth).
>
> List several high status (e.g., high pay or high prestige) jobs/careers that have some negative stereotypes (car dealer, attorney, and so forth).
>
> What are the satisfactions from occupations my family has enjoyed most (leisure time, travel, living conditions, and so forth)?
>
> Which family member am I most like (characteristics, interests, abilities, and so forth)?
>
> What personal work habits or characteristics have made my family successful/satisfied and unsuccessful/dissatisfied on the job? (pp. 102-103)

This activity also should be tried by the reader. After concluding this activity, what have you learned about the relationship between your home environment and your occupational goal?

Holland's Theory

John Holland's theory of career development is a theory of personality. He believed that people can be characterized along six personality and environmental types. The six personality and environmental types are realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. A description of each type is presented.

Realistic (R). The realistic individual may be described as conforming, practical, and thrifty. These individuals enjoy working with things. Some realistic occupations include skilled tradesman, mechanic, machine operator, and grinder.

Investigative (I). The investigative individual may be described as analytical, intellectual, and precise. These individuals enjoy working with ideas. Some investigative occupations include physician, natural scientist, engineer, and engineering technician.

Artistic (A). The artistic individual may be described as imaginative, original, and idealistic. These individuals enjoy working in the arts. Some artistic occupations include artist, musician, and actor.

Social (S). The social individual may be described as friendly, kind, and understanding. These individuals enjoy working with and being with people. Some social occupations include teacher, counselor, and social scientist.

Enterprising (E). The enterprising individual may be described as energetic, self-confident, and talkative. These individuals enjoy working in sales. Some enterprising occupations include administrator, manager, and sales person.

Conventional (C). The conventional individual may be described as conforming, efficient, and practical. These individuals like structure. Some conventional occupations include office worker, secretary, and clerk.

According to Holland (1973) the pairing of persons and environments leads to outcomes which include vocational choice, vocational stability, achievement, educational choice, achievement, personal competence, social behavior, and susceptibility to influence.

Holland also believed that interest inventories were really personality tests. He developed the *Vocational Preference Inventory* and the *Self-Directed Search.* These instruments are easy to administer and score. The six personality and environmental types are used in the scoring of instruments.

In addition to the above instruments, the *Strong Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII)* also uses Holland's six personality and environmental types. This instrument contains 325 questions which are divided into seven parts. These seven parts include occupations, school subjects, activities, amusements, types of people, preference between two activities, and characteristics. An individual's responses are recorded on a computer scorable answer sheet.

To understand results of either inventory, one must understand the relationship among the six personality and environmental types. The six personality and environmental types are usually represented using a hexagon, as illustrated in Figure 9.2.

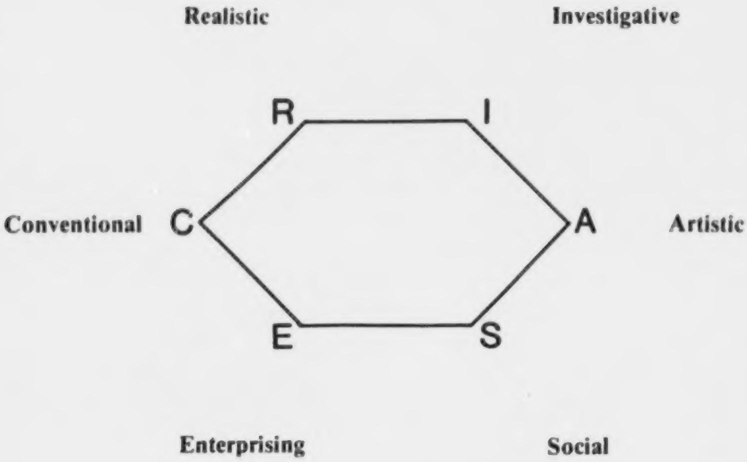

Figure 9.2. Holland's six personality and environmental stages.

Personality and environmental types which are adjacent to one another on the hexagon are more compatible than those which are diagonal to one another. For example, Investigative and Artistic are more compatible than Investigative and Enterprising types.

Results of the *Vocational Preference Inventory, Self-Directed Search,* or *SCII* are returned to the individual and, together with a counselor, the individual determines his/her three letter occupational code. Examples of three letter occupational codes are: IAS, SAE, and IRE. These codes provide descriptions of occupations.

These codes then can be translated into occupations using the *Occupations Finder* (1978) which was developed by Holland. This guide lists 500 occupations arranged under one of the six types. For each occupation, three different kinds of information are provided: digit code corresponding to the six types, the *D.O.T.* number, and the general education level. An example of the information found in the *Occupational Finder* is found in Table 9.1.

Holland's theory is easy to understand. This presentation was designed to give the reader some of the basic concepts of his theory. For those who would like a complete description of Holland's theory, *Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers* by John Holland is easy to read and understand. It also includes the *Self-Directed Search* in Appendix C.

Activity

Complete one of the following interest inventories: Vocational Preference Inventory, Self-Directed Search, or the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory.

1. *What is your three letter code?*

2. *Look up the code in The Occupation Finder. What are some of the occupations listed under this code?*

3. *How do you feel about these occupations?*

4. *What have you learned about yourself that you did not know before?*

5. *Where may you find additional information about these occupations?*

Super's Theory

Donald Super formulated a theory which views career development as a continuous process covering the life-span of an individual. His

TABLE 9.1
Investigative Occupations

CODE: IAS	ED
Economist (050.067-010)	6
Mathematician/Statistician (020.067-014)	6
Market-Research Analyst (050.067-014)	5

CODE: IAR	ED
Anthropologist (055.067-010)	6
Astronomer (021.067-010)	6
Chemist (022.061-010)	6
Pathologist (070.061-010)	6
Physicist (023.061-014)	6

CODE: ISC	ED
Mathematics Teacher (091.227-010)	5
Production Planner (012.167-050)	5
Medical-Laboratory Assistant (078.381-010)	4
Television-and-Radio Repairer (720.281-018)	4

CODE: IES	ED
Bacteriologist (041.061-058)	6
Physiologist (041.061-078)	6
Pharmacist (074.161-010)	5

CODE: IEC	ED
Actuary (020.167-010)	5

CODE: ICR	ED
Quality Control Technician (012.261-014)	5
Computer Operator (213.362-010)	4
Radiation Monitor (199.167-010)	4
Research Assistant (199.364-014)	4

CODE: IRA	ED
Geologist (024.061-018)	6
Surgeon (070.101-094)	6
Urban Planner (199.167-014)	6
Meteorologist (025.062-010)	5
Weather Observer (025.267-014)	5

CODE: IRS	ED
Agronomist (040.061-010)	6
Animal Scientist (040.061-014)	6
Biochemist (041.061-026)	6
Botanist (041.061-038)	6
Dairy Technologist (040.061-022)	6
Environmental Analyst (029.081-010)	6
Geneticist (041.061-050)	6
Horticulturist (040.061-038)	6
Oceanographer (024.061-018)	6
Soil Conservationist (040.061-054)	6
Zoologist (041.061-090)	6

CODE: ISR	ED
Biologist (041.061-030)	6
Dentist (072.101-010)	6
Osteopathic Physician (071.101-010)	6
Sanitarian (079.117-018)	6
Chiropractor (079.101-010)	5
Natural Science Teacher (091.227-010)	5
Optometrist (079.101-018)	5

CODE: ISA	ED
Experimental Psychologist (045.061-018)	6
Physician* (070.101-022)	6
Psychiatrist (070.107-014)	6
Medical Technologist (078.361-014)	5
Nurse, Practitioner (075.264-010)	5
Physician Assistant (079.364-018)	5

CODE: IRS (cont.)	ED
Geographer (029.067-010)	5
Heat-Transfer Technician (007.181-010)	5
Veterinarian (073.101-010)	5
EKG Technician (078.362-018)	4
X-Ray Technician (199.361-010)	4

CODE: IRE	ED
Administrator, Engineer*	6
Aeronautical Engineer (002.061-014)	6
Chemical Engineer (008.061-018)	6
Civil Engineer (005.061-014)	6
Electrical Engineer (003.061-010)	6
Engineer*	6
Metallurgist, Physical (011.061-022)	6
Chemical-Laboratory Technician (022.261-010)	5
Metallurgical-Laboratory Assistant (011.261-010)	4

CODE: IRC	ED
Airplane Navigator (196.167-014)	5
Airplane Pilot (196.263-014)	5
Computer Programmer (020.187-010)	5
Engineering Technician (007.161-026)	5
Model Maker (777.261-010)	5
Tool Designer (007.061-026)	5
Instrument Repairer (710.261-010)	4
Laboratory Tester (029.261-010)	4
Tester, Electrical Accessories (729.381-010)	4

*May carry other D.O.T. numbers when a more detailed job title is given.

NOTE. From *The Occupations Finder* (pp. 4-5) by J. L. Holland, 1977, Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press. Copyright 1977 by Consulting Psychologists Press. Reprinted by permission.

theory may be divided into four parts: self-concept, life-stages, vocational maturity, and career patterns. These factors are indicated in the following twelve propositions offered by Super and Bachrach (1957):

1. Vocational development is an ongoing, continuous, generally irreversible process.
2. Vocational development is an orderly, patterned, and predictable process.
3. Vocational development is a dynamic process.
4. Self-concepts begin to form prior to adolescence, become clear in adolescence, and are translated into occupational terms in adolescence.
5. Reality factors (the reality of personal characteristics and the reality of society) play an increasingly important part in occupational choice with increasing age, from early adolescence to adulthood.
6. Identification with a parent or parent substitute is related to the development of adequate roles, their consistent and harmonious interrelationship, and their interpretation in terms of vocational plans and eventualities.
7. The direction and rate of the vertical movement of an individual from one occupational level to another are related to his/her intelligence, parental socioeconomic level, status needs, values, interests, skill in interpersonal relationships, and the supply and demand conditions in the economy.
8. The occupational field which the individual enters is related to his/her interests, values, and needs, the identifications he/she makes with parental or substitute role models, the community resources he/she uses, the level and quality of his/her educational background, and the occupational structure, trends, and attitudes of his/her community.
9. Although each occupation requires a characteristic of abilities, interests, and personality traits, the tolerances are wide enough to allow both some variety of individuals in each occupation and some diversity of occupations for each individual.
10. Work satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the individual can find adequate outlets in his job for his/her abilities, interests, values, and personality traits.
11. The degree of satisfaction the individual attains from his/her work is related to the degree to which he/she has been able to implement his/her self-control in his/her work.
12. Work and occupation provide a focus for personality organization for most men and many women, although for some persons this focus is peripheral,

> incidental, or even nonexistent, and other foci such as social activities and the home are central. (pp. 118-120)

As in these twelve propositions indicated, Super's approach to career development is comprehensive. He proposes that career development is a process which covers the individual from birth to retirement. We also can see that many factors are related to making an adequate career choice. Some factors include individual's interests, abilities, and needs, and how these factors are influenced through parent identification, community makeup, and educational level. In addition, Super addresses the need for personal satisfaction an individual can attain from an occupation. Super's theory using the elements of self-concept, life stages, vocational maturity, and career pattern will be examined.

Self-Concept. An individual's self-concept begins to form prior to adolescence through the identification of job models. The child's parents, teachers, and other significant adults play an important role in formulating a career choice. The child may indicate a desire to become a lawyer just like his/her father. As the child grows, he/she becomes aware of interests, abilities, and needs. For example, a student who doesn't like math may decide against a career in engineering. The student, therefore, may select an occupation which is congruent with his/her self-concept. In addition, the degree of satisfaction one attains on the job also is related to the self-concept. Super (1957) stated this succintly:

> The choice of an occupation is one of the points in life at which a young person is called upon to state rather explicitly the concept of himself, to say definitely "I am this or that kind of person." (p. 191)

Life-Stages. Super was influenced by Charlotte Buehler in formulating life stages of career development. Buehler believed that life was composed of separate stages. The inclusion of life stages in Super's theory indicates that he views career development as a continuous process covering the entire life of an individual. The five life stages included in Super's theory are *growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance,* and *decline.* A brief description of each of the five stages is presented in Table 9.2.

Using the Life Stage concepts of Super's theory of career development (Table 9.2), how his ideas may be applied in a hypothetical example will be illustrated. In the example, the life stages will be used to illustrate how a boy may decide to become a teacher.

During the *growth* and *exploration* stages, the boy's self-concept is developing. It is during this time that the boy explores who he is and what he is capable of becoming. He learns about himself at home, at school, and at play. The boy learns that he has certain needs, likes, and abilities. He discovers through various activities that certain things he can do well and things which he cannot do well.

In school, he may identify with his science teacher. He finds that the work of the science teacher is interesting and something which he might enjoy doing. His science teacher has observed this and has taken a special interest in him. The science teacher is serving as the boy's role model.

At home, the boy may role play a science teacher. He may role play the teacher with his brothers, sisters, or peers playing the part of the students. In addition, his parents are very supportive of his desire to become a science teacher. They have purchased a science lab for him whereby he can perform science experiments.

During his high school and college years, he will take courses which will lead to his goal. It is during this time that he confirms whether he has the ability to succeed in his chosen career. While completing his internship (practice teaching) in school, he needs to determine whether or not he enjoys working with all kinds of students and whether this work satisfies his needs. At this time he is trying on the role to see if he really enjoys this type of work.

After the training is completed and assuming that he enjoys the work, he enters the teaching profession. During the *establishment stage,* he may find that he would like to advance himself and prepares to become a school principal. He becomes a principal after occupying the positions of counselor and assistant principal. Most of his *maintenance stage* is spent as principal of three different schools. After thirty years of service to the school system, he is ready to retire and decides that he will work part-time during his retirement as a teacher volunteer.

Vocational Maturity. As a person passes through the life stages, each stage corresponds to some aspect in the development of the self-concept. For example, in Table 9.2, during the ages of 18-21, an individual begins to crystalize a vocational preference. More weight is given to reality considerations as one enters an occupation and attempts to implement a self-concept. The extent to which an individual satisfies this task during the life stage determines whether one is vocationally

TABLE 9.2
Super's Conception of Life Stages and Developmental Tasks

Growth	Exploration	Establishment	Maintenance
Birth Self-concept develops through identification with key figures in family and school needs and fantasy are dominant early in this stage; interest and capacity become more important with increasing social participation and reality testing; learn behaviors associated with self-help, social interaction, self-direction, industrialness, goal setting, persistence. Substages: *Fantasy* (4-10 years) Needs are dominant; role-playing in fantasy is important. *Interest* (11-12 years) Likes are the major determinant of aspirations and activities. *Capacity* (13-14 years)	*14 years* Self-examination, role try-outs and occupational exploration take place in school, leisure activities, and part-time work. Substages: *Tentative* (15-17) Needs, interests, capacities, values, and opportunities are all considered, tentative choices are made and tried out in fantasy, discussion, courses, work, etc. Possible appropriate fields and levels of work are identified. Task—Crystallizing a Vocational Preference *Transition* (18-21) Reality considerations are given more weight as the person enters the labor market or professional training and	*24 years* Having found an appropriate field, an effort is made to establish a permanent place in it. Thereafter changes which occur are changes of position, job, or employer, not of occupation. Substages: *Trial-Commitment and Stabilization* (25-30) Settling down. Securing a permanent place in the chosen occupation. May prove unsatisfactory resulting in one or two changes before the life work is found or before it becomes clear that the life work will be a succession of unrelated jobs. *Advancement* (31-44) Effort is put forth to stabilize, to make a	*44 years* Having made a place in the world of work, the concern is how to hold on to it. Little new ground is broken, continuation of established pattern. Concerned about maintaining present status while being forced by competition from younger workers in the advancement stage. Tasks: Preservation of achieved status and gains. **Decline** *64 years* As physical and mental powers decline, work activity changes and in due course ceases. New roles must be developed: first, selective participant and then observer.

Abilities are given more weight and job requirements (including training) are considered. Tasks: Developing a picture of the kind of person one is. Developing an orientation to the world of work and an understanding of the meaning of work.	attempts to implement a self-concept. Generalized choice is converted to specific choice. Task—Specifying a Vocational Preference *Trial-Little Commitment* (22-24) A seemingly appropriate occupation having been found, a first job is located and is tried out as a potential life work. Commitment is still provisional and if the job is not appropriate, the person may reinstitute the process of crystallizing, specifying, and implementing a preference. Task—Implementing a Vocational Preference	secure place in the world of work. For most persons these are the creative years. Seniority is acquired; clientele are developed; superior performance is demonstrated; qualifications are improved. Tasks: Consolidation and Advancement	Individual must find other sources of satisfaction to replace those lost through retirement. Substages: *Deceleration* (65-70) The pace of work slackens, duties are shifted, or the nature of work is changed to suit declining capacities. Many men find part-time jobs to replace their full-time occupations. *Retirement* (71 on) Variation on complete cessation of work or shift to part-time, volunteer, or leisure activities. Tasks: Deceleration, Disengagement, Retirement

NOTE. From *Career Guidance Through the Life Span* (p. 95) by E. L. Herr & S. H. Cramer, 1979, Boston, MA: Little, Brown, & Company. Copyright 1979 by Little, Brown, & Company. Reprinted by permission.

mature. In the example, the vocationally mature individual is ready to make a specific occupational choice.

Career Patterns. A career pattern includes the number of occupations held by an individual from the initial one to the one held at retirement as well as the number of years each occupation was held. According to Osipow (1973), career patterns are the result of psychological, physical, situational, and societal factors. Therefore, needs, abilities, interests, values, family, and significant others all play a part in the career pattern of an individual. Each individual may have a unique career pattern. These factors are considered in Super's twelve propositions and in Table 9.2.

Career patterns may be stable, conventional, unstable, or multiple trial. These patterns take into account the occupational level attained by the individual together with the sequence, frequency, and duration of the various occupations tried.

An example of a stable career pattern is when an individual enters an occupation after graduating from school and remains in this career until retirement. Physicians, lawyers, dentists, and chemists usually have stable career patterns. In the conventional pattern, a number of occupations are tried which ultimately lead to a stable occupation. For example, an individual may work as a lab assistant for a few years, return to school and become a medical technologist, and eventually become a medical technology teacher. This individual remains in the last occupation until retirement.

The unstable career pattern may be found among individuals who work for brief periods of time in various occupations. For example, a woman may work as a waitress, secretary, bookkeeper, salesperson, and factory employee. There is no clear pattern, only temporary employment in various occupations. An example of the multiple-trail pattern is the machinist who works in a factory. The machinist may move on to various factories but still work as a machinist until retirement. This person remains in the same occupation but performs the job at a number of different factories.

Activity

The following activity is designed to take the reader on a fantasy trip using Super's theory. Refer to Table 9.2, while completing the activity.

Think back to your earlier years of life. Explore the life stages of growth and exploration.

1. *How did you feel about yourself during each of the two stages?*

2. *What factors (family background, economic, sociological, psychological, etc.) influenced you to become what you are today?*

3. *With whom did you identify? Why?*

4. *What occupation(s) did you try before entering or considering your present goal?*

Summary

In this section were presented four career development theories which may be helpful to teachers. For one desiring an in-depth description of the career development theorists a list of references is provided. The list is divided into two parts: the first list is one of selected references written by the theorists and the second is a reference of textbooks on career development.

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Using the Theories

The theories presented in this section were included as a guide for teachers in helping their students. Using these theories, teachers may be able to understand their students according to factors of the following:

1. All individuals are unique and different. They have different abilities, needs, values, and interests. These factors may contribute to occupations and life tasks that an individual chooses to pursue.

2. Individuals are influenced by their home, school, and community. These in turn may play an important part in the student selecting a satisfying career.

3. Teachers need to understand that career development is a continuous and life-long process. Decisions may be made when the individual is ready (vocationally mature) to make them.

4. All theories have their own unique limitations, but any may be used as a guide to enhance the development or awareness of the world of work. This may be accomplished with the help of the teacher.

5. The teacher must be able to coordinate classroom learning with the world of work. Teachers may incorporate a career program within the curriculum.

6. The student is the one who must make the final choice about selecting an occupation. No student should be forced to make a decision about a career before he/she is ready. There is no fixed time at which an individual must decide on a particular occupation. The reader who feels otherwise is urged to reread the section on career theories.

DEVELOPING A CAREER EDUCATION PROGRAM

The teacher can create an environment that is nonthreatening, nonjudgmental, and open to ideas concerning careers. This teacher may decide to utilize some of the career developmental concepts into the curriculum. In other words, a career education program does not have to be a separate unit, but may combine career concepts within the subjects taught in the school.

School subjects may easily be used as the foundation for careers. For example, mathematic teachers may explain to their students how engineers, architects, and cashiers utilize mathematical concepts daily. Science teachers may illustrate how chemists, physicians, and waste water treatment operators use scientific concepts in helping people. English and social studies teachers may incorporate any of the occupations in teaching their subjects. For example, a research paper may be assigned whereby students can explore their career aspirations, interests, abilities, feelings of self, and indicate how these concepts influenced their occupational choice.

In developing a career education program within the subject taught, teachers need to consider the following: (1) writing objectives, (2) selecting appropriate activities, and (3) evaluating the program.

Writing Objectives

Since teachers have received training in writing objectives in their methods courses, this section will focus on writing career objectives. Tennyson et al. (1980) suggested that teachers interested in incorporating career objectives into their curriculum should consider the following.

> 1. To provide experiences which will enable students to gain a fuller awareness growing out of the particular subject and how the subject-matter is used by workers in different occupations.
>
> 2. To contribute to the student's testing of reality by showing the relationship between requirements of these occupations and education or training needed to meet them.
>
> 3. To develop attitudes of respect for an appreciation of social usefulness of all types of work to which the subject may lead. (p. 11)

The following objectives may be used by the teacher:

> **Elementary School Level.** Students will be able to list occupations that are important to the operation of their school. For each occupation, students will be able to describe the training (i.e., subjects) that the individual needed to enter the occupation.
>
> **Middle School Level.** Students will be able to list some occupations which are important to the community. For each occupation, students will be able to describe training required to enter the occupation.
>
> **High School Level.** Students will select an occupation that is of particular interest to them. For each occupation selected, students will research training required to enter the job. Students will pair off and role-play an interview for the selected occupation.

These objectives may easily be adapted to elementary, middle, and senior high school classes. Once objectives have been written, the teacher must select some activities which may be used to satisfy objectives.

Selecting Activities

A teacher needs to be aware of the developmental stages of students when selecting activities. These activities should be informative as well as interesting. Therefore, this section will describe some activities that have proven successful.

Elementary school students may become aware of several occupations by having speakers come to class. For example, a teacher may invite school employees to talk to classes about the training needed to do a specific job. The school principal, custodian, cafeteria worker, and counselor are usually willing to help. In addition, the community has many interesting people who are available to visit the school. For example, a teacher may invite a policeman, fireman, telephone worker, a utility employee, and a waitress to the class.

An interesting career guidance activity used with 6th grade students was described by Splete (1981). In this activity, a teacher contacted the manager of a shopping mall and obtained permission to visit a store for two and one-half hours. To guide the students' observation, the teacher prepared a questionnaire. Students learned how to figure sales tax and change, how to price items, how to take inventory, and learned something about salesmanship and public relations. This activity permitted students to gain first-hand knowledge about salesmanship and to utilize mathematical concepts learned in school.

In another activity, Otte and Sharpe (1979), using seventh grade students, examined the effects of a career exploration program on self-esteem, achievement motivation, and occupational knowledge. The students in the experimental group were given hands-on work experiences and group guidance activities supplemented by role-playing in the classroom. Three instruments were used: *Self-Esteem Inventory, Programs of Educational and Career Exploration Knowledge Test,* and an author devised test of achievement motivation. Based on results, the experimental group was significantly different from the control group suggesting that given an outstanding teacher and a well-designed, well-executed career exploration program, dramatic gains can be made in both the cognitive and affective domains.

In addition to activities which involve resource people, discussions, field trips, and role-play, teachers may contact their teacher centers, counselor, or school library and obtain games, films, and filmstrips on careers. Teachers also may wish to construct bulletin boards, develop a hobby center, and read stories about careers to their students. In Chapter 10 are presented additional sources of career information that may be helpful to teachers interested in developing career activities.

Evaluating Career Education Programs

Once a career educational program is developed and tested on a student population, an evaluation of the program must follow. Evaluation is a means by which a teacher determines whether or not goals and objectives of the program were achieved.

In evaluating a career education program, tests are not used. Instead, a teacher may develop surveys, questionnaires, or rating scales. Evaluations do not have to be sophisticated; a teacher may need only to ask the students what they like or learned from the activity. Regardless of how an evaluation is implemented, the important point is that it be executed.

Activity

For your particular age group or subject, develop a career education program using the concepts developed in this section. Write objectives, list some activities to achieve objectives, and describe how you will evaluate the program.

SUMMARY

This chapter was written to acquaint the teacher with some concepts which need to be considered when working with students in the area of career development. In accomplishing this task, the chapter was divided into three sections.

In the first section was examined some factors which may hinder career development process. During their career, teachers may become involved with students who will drop-out of school, become pregnant, take drugs and alcohol, or become delinquents. Additionally, the unique career needs of minorities and women should be considered by teachers.

In the second section, the reader was introduced to four career development theorists. These theorists and their ideas may be used as a guide for addressing needs of students searching for career identities. Additional references were provided at the conclusion of this section for those who may desire a more in-depth presentation of the various theories.

Finally, section three provided the teacher with suggestions for using the theories. In particular, this section described steps necessary in incorporating the ideas presented in the theories to the teacher's curriculum. By developing a career program within the curriculum students may be helped to see the importance of school in preparing for a career.

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CHAPTER 10

OCCUPATIONAL, VOCATIONAL, AND EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION

In this chapter will be described some basic sources of occupational, vocational, and educational information available for teacher and student use. Using these sources, a teacher will be able to answer questions such as: "What training is required to become an electrician?" "What college can I attend that has a good biochemistry program?" or "Where can I find information about becoming a lawyer?" Teachers should be aware of where to find answers to these questions and this chapter is designed to satisfy this need.

In section one will be described some major sources of career and occupational information. In this section, the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT),* the *Occupational Outlook Handbook (OOH),* the *Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance,* and *Exploring Careers* will be discussed. A description of the contents of these works and instructions in the use of each will be provided.

Section two will contain a description of preparation and training opportunities available to students in the school and community. On-the-job opportunities such as distributive education, cooperative training, and work experience will be discussed. Also included in this section is a description of locating employment for students. Teachers are given suggestions to help students prepare for the world of work. The primary emphasis is placed on teachers knowing the community in which they live and work.

The third section will contain descriptions of some of the sources of community college, college and university, and vocational and trade school information. Most students who graduate from high school attend educational institutions for additional training. Some of these students will be preparing to further their education. It is, therefore, important that teachers have some familiarity with the sources of information about educational institutions beyond high school. In addition to colleges and universities, some students may seek further training to prepare for various trades and vocations. Therefore some sources of information about vocational and trade schools have been included.

Because of the introduction of microcomputers into schools, a description of computer information about systems in section four is discussed. Available are a number of software programs with career and college information ready to run on a school's microcomputer. An example of a career and college system is described. Other programs may be found for a particular microcomputer from the manufacturer.

At the conclusion of each section, a number of activities are included. The purpose of these activities is to give the reader an opportunity to gain experience in the use of sources discussed. Activities also are included to give the reader an opportunity to interview people involved in the various training programs as well as people employed by the State Employment Service.

CAREER INFORMATION SOURCES

Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) (4th ed.), Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. The *DOT* was prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor Employment and Training Administration. It contains about 20,000 occupational definitions which are divided into six parts: occupational code number, occupational title, industry designation, alternate titles, definition, and any related title.

The *DOT* is organized into nine divisions: introduction and summary listing; master titles and definitions; term titles and definitions; occupational group arrangement; glossary; alphabetical index of occupational titles; occupational titles arranged by industry designation; industry index; and an exploration of data, people, and things. In addition, in the *DOT* is provided instructions in the effective use of the volume.

A nine-digit occupational code (e.g., 7133.261-014) is used for each definition. The first digit denotes the primary occupational category. There are nine primary occupational categories:

1 Professional/Technical, and Managerial Occupations

2 Clerical and Sales Occupations

3 Service Occupations

4 Agricultural, Fishery, Forestry, and Related Occupations

5 Processing Occupations

6 Machine Trades Occupations

7 Bench Work Occupations

8 Structural Work Occupations

9 Miscellaneous Occupations

The division and the occupational group within the division are denoted in the second and third digit respectively. In digits four, five, and six is described the worker functions performed in a given occupation and refer to data, people, and things. The worker function codes are described:

Data (4th digit)	**People (5th digit)**	**Things (6th digit)**
0 Synthesizing	0 Mentoring	0 Setting up
1 Coordinating	1 Negotiating	1 Precision Working
2 Analyzing	2 Instructing	2 Operating?-Controlling
3 Compiling	3 Supervising	3 Driving?-Operating
4 Computing	4 Diverting	4 Manipulating
5 Copying	5 Persuading	5 Tending
6 Comparing	6 Speaking?-Signaling	6 Feeding?-offbearing
	7 Serving	7 Handling
	8 Taking?-Instructions?-Helping	

The smaller the number in the middle three digits of the nine digit DOT number, the more complicated are the tasks to perform. Higher numbers represent tasks which are easier to perform.

The last group of three digits were introduced to distinguish occupations with identical first six digit codes. For example, if five occupations are with the same first six digits, the last three digits would be represented by 010, 014, 018, 022, and 026. The final three digits are additives of 4. If only one occupation is listed, the last three digits would be 010.

Let us examine an occupation with the following *DOT* code: *713.261-014 Artificial-Plastic-Eye Maker*.

The first digit 7 denotes benchwork occupations. Second, examine the two-digit occupational division in our example. This two-digit number is 71 and refers to occupations in fabrication and repair of scientific, medical, photographic, optical, horological, and related products. Third, we consider the occupational group 713. This three-digit code refers to occupations in fabrication and repair of ophthalmic goods.

In our example, the middle three digits are 261 which correspond to data, people, and things. The 2 in the data section refers to analyzing data; the 6 in the people section refers to speaking-signaling; and the 1 in the things section refers to precision working. Therefore, in this example, the 261 means that an individual working in this occupation would be required to analyze data, communicate with people, and perform precision work.

Finally, the last three digits in this example (014) means that there are at least two occupations with the 713.216 code.

The *DOT* would be a valuable resource for the counselor or the teacher in a class in the study of occupations. All individuals involved with occupations should become familiar with the organization and use of the *DOT*.

Occupational Outlook Handbook (OOH) Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. The *OOH* was prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor and the Bureau of Labor Statistics. New editions of the *OOH* are published every two years. In addition, all occupations described in the *OOH* are grouped into thirteen occupational clusters. The *OOH* includes the following clusters: industrial production, office, service, education, sales, construction, transportation, scientific and technical, mechanics and repairers, health, social science, and performing arts, design, and communication.

The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* may be used in conjunction with the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. For example, if one knows the nine-digit occupational code one can use the *DOT* index and locate the occupational title and the page in the *OOH* where the description of the occupation may be found.

The *OOH* is fairly simple to use. For example, suppose one is interested in finding information about a pharmacist. First, locate the alphabetical index to occupations and industries to find pharmacist. The following information is included under pharmacist: the *DOT* number, a description of the nature of the work; working conditions; places of employment; training, advancement, and other qualifications; employment outlook; earnings and related occupations; and additional sources of information.

Teachers will find the *OOH* a valuable resource in helping students locate career information. It is an excellent companion volume to the *DOT*.

Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance (4th ed.), Hopke, W. E., Editor-in-Chief, J. G. Ferguson Publishing Company, Chicago, IL 60601. The *Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance* is a source of career information which has proven valuable to administrators, teachers, counselors, parents and others interested in assisting students in making effective career decisions. This work contains two volumes.

Volume I, *Planning Your Career,* includes articles such as "It's Your Choice," "How and Where to Look Up More Information," "Using Test Results in Vocational Planning," "How to Find a Job," and "The Future World of Work." These articles were written to give the reader some understanding of the important factors required in making career decisions. The remaining 71 articles describe the opportunities available in the major areas of work.

In Volume II, *Careers and Occupations,* descriptions of specific occupations are included which are divided among the following broad areas: professional, managerial, and technical occupations; clerical occupations; sales occupations; service occupations; agricultural, forestry, fishery, and conservation occupations; processing occupations; machine trades occupations; bench work occupations; structural work occupations; and miscellaneous occupations.

For each of the 220 occupations described in Volume II, the following information is provided: definition, including the *DOT* code; brief history of the occupation; nature of the work; requirements and any special requirements needed to perform the occupation; methods of entering the occupation; advancement opportunities; employment outlook; earnings and conditions of the work; social and psychological factors; and sources of additional information. In addition, for most of the occupations listed in Volume II, a cross-reference of additional articles related to the occupations is provided.

In the fall of 1983, an additional volume was added. Volume III was entitled *Technician Occupations.*

Exploring Careers, Bulletin 2001, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. *Exploring Careers* was prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics as a career education resource for junior high school students. In addition, elementary school teachers may find the publication useful in developing career awareness programs for their students.

This publication is divided into fifteen chapters. Chapter one includes information on why people work, a work values activity, and a table describing the personal characteristics needed for jobs within the fourteen occupational clusters. This chapter also includes suggestions for exploring careers by school subject and training available such as on-the-job training, apprenticeship programs, vocational and technical schools, colleges and universities, and armed forces.

The remaining fourteen chapters of *Exploring Careers, Bulletin 2001* correspond to the fourteen occupational clusters and are included in Table 10.1. For each occupational cluster are provided occupational narratives, evaluative questions, activities, and career games. These are geared toward building career awareness through exploration.

In this section is described four major sources which are essential for gathering information about careers. These sources will provide teachers, counselors, or students with general information about occupations. In addition to the previous sources, some teachers may wish to explore career systems such as *Career Job: A Career Exploration Program* published by Social Studies School Service, *Occupational Library* published by Chronical Guidance Publications, or the *Career Information Kit* published by Science Research Associates.

TABLE 10.1
The Fourteen Occupational Clusters

Occupational Cluster	Occupations Covered
Industrial Production	Bench Assembler, Machinist, Photocompositor
Office	Bank Officer, Planner, Computer Programmer/Systems Analyst
Service	Chef, Building Service Worker, Hotel Clerk, Police Officer
Education	Children's Librarian, Secondary School Teacher, School Counselor
Sales	Securities Sales Worker, Automobile Parts Counter Worker, Gasoline Service Station Attendant
Construction	Bricklayer, Carpenter, Plumber
Transportation	Air Traffic Controller, Railroad Passenger Conductor, Busdriver
Scientific and Technical	Biochemist, Electrical Engineer, Broadcast Technician
Mechanics & repairers	Auto Mechanic, Computer Service Technician, Jeweler
Health	Registered Nurse, Medical Laboratory Technologist, Physical Therapist
Social Scientists	Museum Curator, Political Aide
Social Service	Protestant Minister, Social Worker
Performing Arts, Design and Communication	Architect, Newspaper Reporter, Street Musician
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery	Farmer, Cooperative Extension Service Worker, Forester

NOTE. From *Exploring Careers Bulletin 2001* (pp. 1-34) by U.S. Department of Labor, 1977, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Activities

1. *Using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles,* find:

    a. *the nine-digit occupational code for plumber, roller-skater, clay roaster, and hod carrier.*

    b. *for each occupation in (a), what are the alternate titles (if any)?*

    c. *for each occupation in (a), summarize the occupational definition.*

    d. *List the occupations for the following nine-digit codes: 869.684-026, 074.381-010, 131.087.018, 629.381-014, and 549.132-034.*

2. *Using the Occupational Outlook Handbook, answer the following:*

    a. *What does a biomedical engineer do?*

    b. *What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of painters and paperhangers?*

    c. *What is the employment outlook for mechanical engineers?*

    d. *Where do geophysicists work?*

    e. *What training must a watch repairer have?*

    f. *How much does a geographer earn?*

    g. *List three related occupations for landscape architect.*

3. *Using the Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance, answer the following:*
    a. *What are some of the medical and health services professions (Vol. I)?*

    b. *What is the possibility of getting a job in the medical and health services profession (Vol. I)?*

c. *Where can I go for financial assistance in the health services professions (Vol. I)?*

d. *What requirements are needed to become a meteorologist (Vol. II)?*

e. *What does a political scientist do (Vol. II)?*

f. *What is the employment outlook for a shipping and receiving clerk (Vol. II)?*

g. *What special requirements are needed to become a beauty operator (Vol. II)?*

h. *What social and psychological characteristics must bellhops possess (Vol. II)?*

4. *Using* ***Exploring Careers*** *answer the following:*

   a. *What traits are needed for people in the building trades?*

   b. *Name five related occupations within the transportation occupations.*

   c. *What does a biochemist do?*

   d. *Name the three branches of science.*

   e. *Locate three activities for your students in the service occupations.*

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Vocational Courses and Programs

Middle, junior high, and senior high schools often have vocational courses available. These courses may be required in middle schools and junior high schools and elective in senior high schools. Some colleges may have vocational and cooperative education programs for interested students. Some of these programs will be described in this section.

Agricultural Education. In some junior and senior high schools, students who are interested in entering agricultural occupations such as horticulture, food processing, livestock, feed, seed and fertilizer sales may take agricultural related courses. High school students enrolled in agricultural courses may obtain practical experience through outside employment. These students usually take their classes in the morning and work in the job setting during the afternoon.

Business Education. In middle schools and junior high schools, students may take courses in typing and office skills which will help them prepare for business occupations. While in high school, some students may elect to take additional courses in typing, business mathematics, shorthand, accounting, and data processing to help further their educational goals. Some students may choose to enroll in college or business school in order to prepare for employment. Students enrolled in business courses may obtain employment experience through cooperation with school personnel and employers.

Home Economics. In middle schools and junior high schools, students may be required to take home economics courses such as sewing and cooking. Students who are interested in furthering their skills may take classes in food and nutrition, family life, clothing, and textiles while in high school and college.

Industrial Arts. Industrial arts classes may help students in middle, junior high, and senior high schools discover and explore career opportunities in the field. In addition, industrial arts classes enable students to develop an awareness of interests and abilities to succeed in this area. Some subjects included in the industrial arts programs are metal working, wood working, electricity, electronics, and graphic arts. These courses are usually open to interested students in middle, junior high, and senior high schools.

Trade and Industrial Education. Like industrial arts, the major purpose of trade and industrial education is to prepare and develop skills for employment. Some of the classes offered by trade and industrial education include auto mechanics, carpentry, drafting, graphics, and welding. Students in middle and junior high schools may take these courses;

however, courses in auto mechanics and welding are usually limited to high school students.

Distributive Education. The distributive education program is designed to prepare students to enter the buying and selling occupations upon graduation. In high school, distributive education students may be enrolled in advertising, merchandising, marketing, and salesmanship courses while taking basic courses in mathematics and English. Typically, a student enrolled in distributive education spends the morning in the classroom and the afternoon on-the-job. One may find distributive education students working in department stores, hotels, restaurants, and service stations. When a distributive education student graduates from high school, he/she may enter the job market or continue in a distributive education program while in college.

Cooperative Education. Cooperative education plans are available to students enrolled in the previously discussed programs at various schools and colleges throughout the United States. The purpose of the cooperative education program is to enable students to learn skills necessary in business and industry by working in a job related to the student's course of study. In addition, the cooperative education program is carefully planned between school and business or industry with the student's goals in mind.

A student may select one of two alternatives depending on the school and the cooperative industry or business. The first alternative is to have a student work full-time for a specific period such as six months and to attend school full-time for an equal time period. A second alternative is to have a student work part-time while attending school on either a full-time or part-time basis, working during nonschool hours. This alternative is the one most frequently encountered.

In the cooperative training program both students and employers benefit. The employer may be able to hire the needed personnel because the student was trained by the company. This reduction of training time to enter the occupation saves the company money. On the other hand, students benefit by earning money while developing skills needed for employment.

Locating Employment for Students

The purpose of this section is to provide suggestions for teachers interested in helping students find employment. "Know your community" is the key to helping students find employment.

Knowing Your Community. Teachers need to become familiar with businesses and industries in their community which employ the majority of people. One method that a teacher may use is the yellow pages of the telephone book. Using this source, one can locate the name, address, and telephone number of the leading businesses and industries. A teacher can contact employers and invite them to speak to students interested in employment. Also, a teacher may wish to arrange tours of the business or industry.

Another source of employment information is the local State Employment Service. Using the telephone book, locate your State Employment Service. The State Employment Service is a no-fee agency whose major purpose is to find jobs for people and is relatively easy to use.

Teachers may invite an employment interviewer or counselor to school to have him/her describe services offered by the agency. Students interested in receiving more help may make appointments with the representative to meet at the agency.

At the agency, an employment interviewer will help a person determine the type of position sought. Sometimes the employment interviewer may refer an individual to an employment counselor who may administer aptitude or ability tests. When a suitable position is determined, the employment interviewer will check the job bank. The job bank contains a number of positions currently available.

Available positions are usually printed in the job bank on microfiche. The interviewer and client examine the various positions to locate suitable ones. If a position is found, the employment interviewer contacts the employer and arranges an interview for the client.

A third method that a teacher may use is the classified ads in the newspapers. Classified ads are usually arranged according to major categories such as professional, sales, clerical, trades, and miscellaneous.

Teachers may wish to bring classified ads to class and have students locate positions which are of interest to them.

Teachers may contact city, county, state, and federal personnel offices to obtain information about job vacancies. In addition to the previous sources, the local Chamber of Commerce may provide the teacher with information about occupational opportunities available in the community.

Activities

1. *Visit a local high school and prepare a report about the vocational programs offered.*

2. *Visit your local State Employment Service and ask the employment counselor or interviewer to show you the job bank. What kinds of positions are available? What other services do they provide?*

3. *Arrange a field trip to a local business or industry. What career opportunities are available?*

4. *Interview an individual in an occupation of interest to you. What are the requirements to enter the occupation? What are some advantages and disadvantages of the occupation?*

5. *Arrange to take a vocational aptitude and/or interest inventory. What do your results mean to you?*

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY INFORMATION

Teachers and counselors need some understanding of the resources available concerning junior and community colleges, colleges and universities, and vocational trade schools. While no one would expect teachers and counselors to be knowledgeable about every school and program throughout the United States, one does expect them to be familiar with some of the popular resources available. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to introduce the reader to a sample of the sources of information on two-year colleges, four-year colleges and universities, and vocational and trade schools.

Primary Sources of Information

The best source of information about the various schools are the schools themselves. High school guidance offices probably have copies of current bulletins and catalogs of colleges and vocational schools most frequently attended by their graduates. Representatives from local schools may be invited to speak to the students interested in attending them. For out-of-state schools, teachers may need to provide interested students with addresses so they can send for information about a particular school.

Some schools may wish to purchase a commercially prepared college catalogue service. One service is described:

The National College Catalog Service (NCCS), Time Share Corporation, Box 974, Hanover, N.H. 03755. This service consists of college catalogs on microfiche. A school may purchase either a complete plan which contains four- and two-year colleges, a plan with all four-year colleges and universities, or a plan with all two-year colleges. For each plan, a subscription service is available which will keep the plan current by providing microfiche of new catalogs every three months.

In addition, schools may order four-year and two-year college and university catalogs by states. A subscription service also is available for this plan on an annual basis.

Secondary Sources of Information

Many secondary sources of compiled information are available on two-year colleges, four-year colleges and universities, and vocational and trade schools. Sources which may be helpful are described.

Barron's Guide to the Two-Year Colleges, Vol. I. Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 113 Crossways Park Drive, Woodbury, NY 11797. Volume I of *Barrons's Guide to the Two-Year Colleges* is organized into three major sections. Section one describes the two-year commuter colleges which are listed alphabetically by state. Sections two and three describe the two-year residential colleges and four-year colleges with two-year programs, respectively.

Each section includes the address and telephone number of the college with information about size, accreditation, type of admission, tuition and fees, degrees and programs offered, student-faculty ratio, and whether the school is on the quarter or semester system.

Volume II will be described in the section on trade and technical schools.

Lovejoy's College Guide, Clarence E. Lovejoy, Simon and Schuster, 1230 Avenue of the America's, New York, NY 10020. This book is divided into three major sections. Section one contains information about expenses, financial aid, grants, and admissions. Also included in this section are procedures one may use to find a college that is suitable to individual needs.

Section two contains an alphabetical index of professional and special programs such as music and art plus the colleges affiliation with accreditation bodies and member associations.

Section three contains an alphabetical listing of the various schools with a brief description of the schools including tuition, fees, and degrees offered.

Peterson's Annual Guide to Undergraduate Study, Joan Hunter, Editor, P.O. Box 2123, Princeton, NJ 08540. This book is divided into three major sections followed by two indexes. Section one contains a directory of basic college data with test score ranges. Also included in this section are a directory of majors, college profiles, and how to apply for admission. An in-depth description of the colleges and universities with programs offered is included in section two. Section three contains information about specialized programs available such as ROTC.

The two indexes contain a listing of majors and a listing of colleges and universities, respectively.

The College Handbook, Maureen Matheson, Editor, The College Board, 888 Seventh Avenue, New York, NY 10019. *The College Handbook* is published every two years. It provides information about the number of undergraduates, whether the school is on the semester or quarter system, admission requirements, tuition and financial aid, and where to write for additional information for approximately 3,000 colleges and universities.

Barron's Profiles of American Colleges, Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 113 Crossways Park Drive, Woodbury, NY 11797. This two volume work is similar in organization to *Barron's Guide to the Two-Year Colleges.* A major feature of this work is that it includes specialized colleges in addition to the regular colleges. Specialized colleges include professional schools of art, music, theater arts, and circus, to mention a few. Admission to these schools is based upon talent and special interest. Also included are single-sex colleges, colleges with religious affiliation, colleges offering ROTC, and external degree programs.

Colleges are listed under one of the following categories: most competitive, least competitive, and noncompetitive. In addition, this work describes student life, sports, programs of study, admissions policies, and any facilities available for the handicapped.

College Admissions Data Service, Orchard House, Inc., Balls Hill Road, Concord, MA 01742. The *College Admissions Data Service* is a two-volume work. Volume I contains information about colleges in the northeast, mid-atlantic, and the south. The mid-western and western colleges are contained in Volume II.

For each school listed in these volumes, the following information is provided: admission requirements such as the number of academic units needed, whether the SAT or ACT is required, application fee, whether the college has early admissions, a description of SAT scores and whether advance placement scores may be used; financial information such as aid, loans, and employment available to students; curriculum information, accreditation, and a description of the faculty as to the number holding bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees; and a description of the extra-curricula activities, any special regulations, and whether the school is on the semester or quarter system.

The College Blue Book, Macmillan Information, A Division of Macmillan Publishing Co., 866 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022. *The College Blue Book* is a five-volume work with information about more than three thousand colleges and universities in the United States and Canada. A summary of the volumes follows:

Volume I. Narrative Descriptions. This volume contains information about procedures for filing admission applications, description of the campus, entrance requirements, tuition and fees, and description of the school's environment.

Volume II. Tabular Data. In this volume, colleges are listed alphabetically by state or province. Also included is information about tuition, enrollment, faculty, accreditation, and the name of the registrar.

Volume III. Degrees Offered by College And Subject. This volume is divided into two major parts. Part I includes a list of subject areas for which degrees are offered. In Part II, a list of over 2500 subject areas for which degrees are granted by one or more institutions of higher education is provided.

Volume IV. Scholarships, Fellowships, Grants, and Loans. An index lists the title of financial assistance available. This volume also includes an index of sponsoring organizations; the academic level of the awards index such as colleges, prep schools, and graduate schools; and an index of subjects.

The body of Volume IV describes each loan as follows: title of the loan, area, field or subject level of education, amount of the award, loan requirements, methods of distribution, deadlines, and where to apply.

Volume V. Occupational Education will be described under trade and technical schools.

VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL TRADE SCHOOLS INFORMATION

American Trade Schools Directory, Croner Publications Inc., 211-03 Jamaica Avenue, Queens Village, NY 11423. This directory contains approximately 9,000 public and private trade, industrial, and vocational schools throughout the United States. It is a loose-leaf book which is divided into two major parts. Part I lists the various subject areas in alphabetical order. Under each subject listing is a list of states with page cross-references to Part II. Part II lists the trade schools alphabetically by state and town.

For example, suppose one wanted to know whether or not a bartender school is in Wichita, Kansas. One would look up bartender school and find one listed under Kansas with a number 55. Then one would turn to Part II and look up Kansas with the number 55 and find the following listing:

Kansas School of Bartending
2138 North Market Street
Wichita, Kansas 76214

This volume also includes code letters which may be listed next to the school's number. These codes indicate whether the school is public or private, its accreditation, and whether the school is for men or women or both. This volume is revised annually.

Barron's Guide to the Two-Year Colleges Vol. II, Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 113 Crossways Park Drive, Woodbury, NY 11797. Volume II of this work is an occupational program selector. It contains over 1500 vocational and technical programs at two-year colleges. In this volume is description of the following areas: agricultural and environmental management, business and commerce, media and communications, health and public services, and engineering technology.

The College Blue Book Vol. V, Occupational Education, Macmillan Information, A Division of Macmillan Publishing Co., 866 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022. This volume includes over 8,000 business, trade, and technical schools. These schools are listed in alphabetical order and are classified as allied medical, art, barber, business, correspondence, cosmetology, flight and ground, nursing, trade and technical, or two-year college. In addition, information about enrollment data, tuition, contact persons, entrance requirements, description of the programs, and financial aid is included.

Activities

Using the references described in this section, answer the following questions. Be sure to include the title of the work and the page number where the answer was found.

1. *Does the University of Hawaii offer a master's degree in electrical engineering?*

2. *Does Lehigh University have a work-study program?*

3. *Identify at least three two-year commuter colleges in New York City?*

4. *What is rolling admissions? Identify at least one college in South Carolina that has rolling admissions?*

5. *Which university in Florida offers courses in the circus?*

6. *Does the University of Colorado have a philosophy department?*

7. *Are there any specialized accredited colleges in Missouri?*

8. *Is there a Baptist College in North Carolina that offers a major in history?*

9. *Is there a two-year college for women in Texas?*

10. *Where can one go to school to become an optometrist?*

11. *Is there a secretarial school in Omaha, Nebraska?*

12. *Can one obtain a master's degree in civil engineering at Rutgers University?*

13. *Is there an accredited barber college in Salt Lake City, Utah?*

14. *Identify at least one art school in Georgia.*

15. *Where can one study cosmetology in Des Moines, Iowa?*

COMPUTER INFORMATION SYSTEMS

Students are living in the computer age. Many elementary, middle, junior high, and senior high schools have purchased one or more microcomputers for teachers and students use. One does not need to be a computer programmer to operate the microcomputer. Programs are available on floppy disks which are inserted into a disk drive. To find the program, teacher or student would type "LOAD" and depress the "RETURN" key. The disk drive will read the floppy disk and search for a desired program. When the program is found, the microcomputer will indicate this on a screen. To run the program, teacher or student would type "RUN" and hit the "RETURN" key. Now the individual is able to interact with the microcomputer.

Using the software programs available on floppy disks, one may learn subjects or obtain college and career information. An example of two career and college information programs are the *Career Scan IV* and *College Scan IV* published by the National Educational Software Services.

The *Career Scan IV* and *College Scan IV* may be used with the Apple II, TRS-80 Model III, or Commodore PET. Each search may take about 15 minutes and will provide summary information to the screen or to a printer if the microcomputer has one. *Career Scan IV* includes over 700 occupations and contains nine question categories with 42 variables. The questions and variables cover life styles, abilities, school subjects, training or education required, interests, values, and job characteristics. In addition, each occupation is referenced to publications available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

The College Scan IV covers approximately 1200 colleges nationwide and uses over 450 variables to search them. The variables are arranged by topic which include programs of study; size, cost, location, and control; academic, environment; characteristics of the student body; institutional regulations; and athletic programs. Once a school has been identified, the student can obtain a listing of all coded information about the school. If the microcomputer has a printer, this information can be printed.

An advantage of having a microcomputer system is that the student can use it independently. Students usually find the system easy to use and enjoy interacting with it. Another advantage is that the search usually takes less than 30 minutes. The only limitation to using a career or college search is the number of microcomputers available at the school. Some school budgets may prohibit the purchase of microcomputers or software systems.

SUMMARY

In this chapter were described sources of occupational, vocational, and educational information. It is suggested that the reader locate sources of information covered in this chapter and examine their contents. A number of activities were included at the end of each section to give the reader an opportunity to locate information.

Only a selected sample of informational sources was included. There are many excellent publications concerning occupational, vocational, and educational information on the market today and the sources described in this chapter will provide the reader with an excellent starting point.

Because of the increasing use of microcomputers in schools, a section on microcomputers and software programs was included. Several software programs are available with new ones being added regularly. An example of a career and college software program was described. Some of the advantages of using microcomputers were included.

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CHAPTER 11

DEVELOPING RELATIONSHIPS

The purpose of this chapter is to incorporate concepts and techniques developed in Chapters 3 and 6 into practical recommendations and apply them to teacher-student or parent-child relationships.

In Chapter 3, interpersonal processes and facilitative techniques of listening, reflection, clarification, questioning, interpretation, modeling, and reinforcement were examined. In Chapter 6, positive relationships based on communicating a caring, open, and nonthreatening environment were examined as ingredients which result in the reduction of conflicts.

These relationships can grow and improve through an understanding of interpersonal techniques and processes. Regardless of whether discussing teacher-student or parent-child relationships, one finds that concepts are identical. These techniques and processes therefore will be presented throughout this chapter while describing studies, models, and workshops on relationships between and among students, teachers, and parents.

TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Developing Positive Teacher-Student Relationships

In developing positive teacher-student relationships, teachers can create a positive environment through awareness of needs. Before any learning can take place, effective teachers understand that students have needs which must be satisfied. Therefore, teachers can facilitate learning by becoming familiar with Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs which are as listed from lower to higher order:

1. Physiological
2. Safety
3. Belongingness and Love
4. Esteem
5. Self-Actualization
6. Knowing and Understanding
7. Aesthetic

Lower order needs must be satisfied by the student before higher order needs are met. Each student will have different degrees of satisfaction for each level. For example, student A may require 40% satisfaction at level one, 60% satisfaction at level two, and 80% satisfaction at level three while student B may require 80% satisfaction at level one, 50% satisfaction at level two, and 95% satisfaction at level three before proceeding to level four.

The first four levels in the hierarchy are particularly important for teachers to understand because only when these needs are satisfied and the student is at level five can positive relationships develop where learning can take place. To illustrate this point, suppose that a student in your class is a behavioral problem and is failing. How may you analyze the situation using Maslow's hierarchy of needs?

If the student does not eat breakfast and attends school hungry, then level one need is not satisfied. The student may not be able to concentrate in class and may fall asleep. On the other hand, some students eat junk food instead of a well balanced breakfast. This may cause the student to become hyperactive and result in disruptive behavior. To resolve this conflict, teachers may decide to meet with the parents and student to discuss the importance of eating a well-balanced breakfast.

Students who come from single-parent families may have satisfied level one needs but not the safety needs at level two. For example, in a single parent family, the father may have left home a few years ago and the mother may work and not be at home when the second grade student returns from school. This student may develop a fear that the mother will decide to leave him/her too. Fearing that the mother will leave home may affect the student's ability to concentrate and learn in class. Teachers who identify this need early may decide to talk to the student and listen to his/her concerns.

At level three, belongingness, a student whose parents have divorced may have a father who rarely, if ever, visits him/her. This student may believe that something about him/her that the father does not like or that he/she is the cause of the divorce. This belief in turn may affect the student in the class. A caring and understanding teacher may be able to help the student by listening.

If a student has failed continuously in school, he/she may believe that there is no use in trying. Because the need of esteem has not been satisfied, this student believes that he/she is incapable of learning and therefore is worthless. The teacher may need to investigate the situation further to determine whether the student needs special or additional help. Also, the teacher may decide to assign this student activities in which he/she can succeed.

Activity

Think of a situation in your life in which one of the listed needs was not satisfied. Describe the situation. What need was not satisfied? How *did you feel? How was the need satisfied? How do you feel about the situation in retrospect?*

Developing Positive Attitudes and Beliefs About Students

Attitudes and beliefs held may affect relationships with students. In building a positive relationship with students, one must become aware of kinds of beliefs that one owns. Sometimes teachers develop faulty beliefs about students which result in negative effects. In Table 11.1 developed by Dinkmeyer and Dinkmeyer (1979) is illustrated this point.

Read the list of faulty beliefs again. Which, if any, are beliefs to which you subscribe? Notice that these beliefs come from within the person. They are learned and can be changed. For example, Mary Brown, a teacher, was upset over the fact that her lesson was ruined because of an unruly student. She had been having difficulty with this student for months. Mary disciplined the student but this did not help the situation. Mary felt that she must be able to handle all students and situations which developed in her classroom. One day, Mary decided to talk with the student. During the discussion, she discovered that the student's father had terminal cancer. Understanding the situation, Mary was able to change her negative feelings toward the student. Teachers must understand however that some situations cannot be resolved.

Activity

For each faulty belief listed in Table 11.1 complete the second column. In completing this activity, assume that you have the faulty belief and then describe how it can hinder the teacher-student relationship. Include suggestions for changing each faulty belief.

TABLE 11.1
Faulty Beliefs and Their Negative Effects

Faulty Belief	How That Belief Hinders Teacher-Student Relationships and Learning
Students must cooperate with me, as the teacher.	If I don't get my way, learning cannot occur; thus, lack of cooperation means I cannot compromise.
I must be capable of handling all students and all situations or I am not a capable teacher.	If I can't handle one student, this is very destructive and I will bear down on that student until I solve the situation.
(With the remaining beliefs, think of ways in which the belief impedes learning.)	
My plans must succeed at all costs.	
Some students are naturally bad and must be punished when they fail to cooperate.	
I must control the classroom and all students so they do not control me. It is dangerous to be out of control in any way.	
Unhappiness is externally caused and I have no ability to control or influence my feelings.	
Because something once affected my life, I am forever a victim of that influence.	
Children are the product of their heredity and environment and thus cannot be change.	

NOTE. From "Working with Teachers: In-Service and C-Groups" by D. Dinkmeyer, Jr., and D. Dinkmeyer, 1979, *Counseling and Human Development, 11,* p. 5. Copyright 1979 by Love Publishing Company. Reprinted by permission.

Communication—The Key to Positive Teacher-Student Relationships

Building a positive teacher-student relationship depends primarily upon developing effective communication techniques. In Chapter 3 were materials on these interpersonal processes and the facilitative techniques of listening, reflecting, clarification, questioning, interpretation, modeling, and reinforcement. In order for teacher-student relationships to develop positively, a teacher must be willing to build upon these concepts of communication and to practice them until they become a natural part of the teacher's behavior.

Gordon (1974) listed five characteristics of an effective teacher-student relationship: openness or transparency, caring, interdependence, separateness, and mutual needs meeting. These characteristics may enhance the environment of the student by permitting growth in his/her own unique way. An environment which is open to communication, caring, and interdependence encourages the student to develop the need for a positive self-concept.

Teachers therefore can create an environment that stimulates learning, is free from threat, and is open to communication. This positive learning environment may enhance better relationships which in turn should motivate students to learn. Bloom (1976) found that in a favorable environment high and low achievers were similar in learning and motivation to learn. However, in an unfavorable environment, he found that the gap between high and low achievers widened. *A teacher who communicates a caring, open, and nonthreatening environment for students will enhance a positive relationship which may result in the reduction of teacher-student conflicts* (see Chapter 6).

Activity: How Well Do You Listen?

The most important communication technique that a teacher can develop with students is listening. In this activity, the class can divide into dyads. The objective is to learn as much about the other person as you can through listening. Each member of the group alternately asks questions of the other person. However, before asking questions, you must tell the other person what they said. At the conclusion of the activity, summarize what you learned about the person. How did you feel about repeating what the other person said before asking your question?

Preventing Discipline Problems

In Chapter 6 were examined ways to reduce teacher-student conflicts and provide foundation for avoiding discipline problems and conflicts. Classes where positive teacher-student relationships have developed are easy to identify. These classes are usually well organized and when you visit them you can feel the warmth. Students are busy and appear to enjoy the tasks that are assigned.

On the other hand, teachers who have not developed positive working relationships also are easy to identify. These teachers focus their attention exclusively on the learning levels of their students. Often, these teachers praise their "good" students and are negative in their dealings with their "poorer" students. One frequently hears negative comments about the "poorer" students in the teacher's lounge. Comments center around descriptions of students as those who cannot learn, do not do their homework, fall asleep in class, appear to be in a trance, and are just a plain nuisance in class.

Most discipline problems may be avoided by establishing rules for the class during the first few days of class. Positive teacher-student relationships can be initiated during this time by having students help in formulating rules. While school policies and procedures are included, other rules can be established through cooperation of students. During this time, the teacher and students may discuss the consequences for breaking rules. When students participate in making rules, teachers find that students break the rules less frequently.

A list of fifteen discipline suggestions for teachers was developed by Stoops and King-Stoops (1981) and is presented. The list serves as a guide when developing classroom rules.

1. On the first day, cooperatively develop classroom standards.
2. Incorporate school and district policies in the classroom list.
3. Establish consequences for good and poor behavior.
4. Expect good behavior from your students, and they will try to live up to your expectations.
5. Plan motivational, interesting, and meaningful lessons. Show your own enthusiasm for lesson activities.

6. Prevent negative behavior by continuous emphasis upon positive achievement.

7. Develop student-discipline as rapidly as possible. Lead each student to make his/her own decision rather than rely on yours.

8. If behavior problems cannot be solved in the classroom, seek the help of counselors and administrators.

9. Reinforce good behavior by rewarding students in public. Correct or punish in private.

10. Work closely with parents. Encourage them to send students to you with positive attitudes toward classroom learning.

11. Avoid useless rules, snap judgments, and loss of composure.

12. Be consistent, fair, and firm.

13. Refrain from threats or promises that you may not be able to implement.

14. Recognize that children have limited attention spans and assign alternate activities.

15. Discipline yourself in manners, voice, disposition, honesty, punctuality, consistency, fairness, and love for your students so that your own example inspires behavior at its best. (p. 58)

Models for Improving Teacher-Student Relationships

This section describes three models that teachers may use in improving relationships with their students. The first two models are concerned with human relationships; the third model involves the consultation function.

Human-relations Model. Gorin (1977) developed a model for a course in human-relations for classroom teachers. Gorin adapted Ponzo's (1976) three phases of counseling (awareness, cognitive reorganization, and behavior change). In Table 11.2 are presented the essential ingredients for Gorin's human-relations course. Readers should refer to this table as they read the descriptions for each phase.

The first phase of the model is the awareness phase. It is designed to help teachers develop values and listening skills. Under the sources column, a list of texts and kits which may be of benefit to teachers is included. The rationale is that one cannot help others develop values until

TABLE 11.2
Human-relations Model for Classroom Teachers

Phase	Goals	Sources
AWARENESS	To help each person to discover his/her value system	Simon, S. B., Howe, L. W., & Kirschenbaum, H. (1972). *Values clarification—A handbook of practical strategies for teachers and students.* New York: Hart.
	To develop active listening skills to help in identifying and accepting feelings	Gordon, T. (1974). *Teacher effectiveness training.* New York: Peter H. Weyden.
		Besell, H., & Palomares, V. (1972). *Human development program. (Magic-Circle).* San Diego, CA: Human Development Training Institute.
	To design kits to develop awareness phase of programs	Dinkmeyer, D. (1970). Duso Kit D-1. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.
		Anderson, J., & Miner, P. (1971). *Focus on Self-Development. Stage two: Responding.* Chicago, IL: SRA
COGNITIVE REORGANIZATION	To develop rational thinking by becoming aware of communication patterns	James, M., & Jongeword, D. (1972). *Born to win.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
	To learn the games students and teachers play	Ernst, K. (1972). *Games students play.* Milbrae, CA: Celestial Arts.
	To develop an understanding of the four goals of misbehavior (attention, power, revenge, and inadequacy)	Dreikurs, R., & Cassel, P. (1972). *Discipline without tears.* New York: Hawthorne.
BEHAVIOR CHANGE	To use behavioral techniques to bring about change	Patterson, G., & Gullion, M.E. (1968). *Living with children.* Champaign, IL: Research Press.
	To develop reinforcement and punishment techniques	Glasser, W. (1969). *Schools without failure.* New York: Harper & Row.
		Gundell, K. (1972). *Behavior contracting kits for teachers and parents.* Linden, NJ: Remediation Associates.

NOTE. From *The School Counselor* (p. 131) by R. E. Gorin, 1977, Washington, DC: APGA Press. Copyright 1977 by APGA Press. Adapted by permission.

his/her values have been developed. The same holds true for helping others develop active listening skills.

Phase two, the cognitive reorganization phase, includes an awareness of communication patterns. Positive relationships often improve through developing better communication patterns. In Phase two, a teacher learns goals of student misbehavior and games that students play in achieving their goals. Before any changes in teacher-student relationships can take place, the teacher must become aware of what needs to be changed.

In Phase three, behavior change, the teacher learns techniques that may help in bringing about changes in misbehavior. These behavior techniques are incorporated in the behavior contracting kits for teachers and parents available from Remediation Associates.

Problem-solving Model. A model on teacher-student relations was developed by Moracco (1981) and is presented in Table 11.3. Moracco and Higgins (1985) expanded the concepts in their book entitled *Comprehensive Approach to Human Relations Development.* It is designed to be useful to teachers who desire a model which easily can be adapted for a number of teacher-student problem-solving situations.

The model provides six stages, each of which includes goals for the teacher (helper) and the student (helpee). At each stage, skills needed by the helper are identified so as to provide the helper with an easy transition from one stage to the next. This model is a problem-solving approach because it more accurately describes what actually occurs in the classroom. Additionally, skills used in this model may be used by teachers and students outside of the classroom environment. These skills are similar, if not identical, to concepts discussed in Chapter 3.

Consultation Model. The third model is a consultation model which incorporates the problem-solving student-teacher approach. Student-teacher relationships may be improved with the help and cooperation of administrators, counselors, and parents.

A teacher is in a unique position to become a consultant in the school because the teacher has more contact hours with students than any other member of the staff. The classroom teacher observes, teaches, tests, and interacts with the student on a daily basis. Thus, the teacher communicates frequently with students.

TABLE 11.3
Explication of the Six Stage Helping Process

Stage	Helpee Goals	Helper Goals	Helper Skills
EXPRESSING	Helpee is able to explore and to identify underlying feelings and emotions of his/her concerns.	Helper is able to facilitate helpee by establishing a growth relationship.	1. primary accurate empathy 2. concreteness 3. respect 4. genuineness
DEFINING	Helpee is able to identify his/her concern and is able to place it in a proper perspective.	Helper is able to facilitate helpee by providing and clarifying parameters of concern.	1. immediacy 2. advanced accurate empathy 3. self-disclosure 4. primary confrontation
COMMITTING	Helpee is able to make a commitment to change.	Helper is able to facilitate the helpee to "own" the concern and take responsibility for it.	1. advanced confrontation 2. advanced empathy 3. clarifying
GENERATING ALTERNATIVES	Helpee is able to list several alternatives as possible solutions to concern.	Helper is able to facilitate helpee by assisting and promoting the generation of alternatives.	1. brainstorming 2. summarizing 3. prompting 4. open-ended questions
SELECTING AN ALTERNATIVE	Helpee is able to select one alternative from several possibilities.	Helper is able to facilitate helpee by assisting in the decision-making process.	1. open-ended questions 2. reinforcing 3. suggestions and strategies
EVALUATING THE ALTERNATIVE	Helper is able to assess whether the proposed alternative is effective.	Helper is able to facilitate helpee by assisting in the evaluation process.	1. summarizing 2. open-ended questions

NOTE. From "A Comprehensive Approach to Human Relations Training for Teachers" by J. Moracco, 1981, *Counselor Education and Supervision, 21,* p. 129. Copyright 1981 by APGA Press. Reprinted by permission.

Consultation is based upon communication and human interaction. As a process, consultation involves two or more individuals (administrators, teachers, school psychologists, and parents) who are concerned with helping another person (student). The consultation process involves the other person (student) indirectly.

This model was developed by Kurpius (1978) and contains nine operational stages: preentry, entry, gathering information, defining the problem, determination of a problem solution, stating objectives, implementation of the plan, evaluating, and termination. The general consultation model as it applies to a teacher who believes that a student requires placement in a special education class will be presented.

Stage 1—Preentry. The school counselor may be instrumental in establishing this stage. The counselor may conduct a workshop for teachers on the role of a consultant. During the workshop, the definition of the consultant's role including skills needed to become an effective consultant may be covered.

Stage 2—Entry. The teacher and counselor develop an effective working relationship and develop an understanding of ground rules as well as their respective roles in serving as the school's consultant.

The classroom teacher may meet with the counselor to discuss a problem that has developed regarding a student. During this meeting, the teacher will indicate nature of the problem and steps already taken to alleviate the problem. They may determine that additional information needs to be gathered before referring the student for placement in a special class.

Stage 3—Gathering Information. The teacher collects as much information as possible about the student. This information may include observations, anecdotal records, grades, test scores, and information gathered from parent conferences as well as conferences with the student.

In addition, with permission of parents, the school psychologist may be requested to evaluate the student to determine if a problem exists that may be eliminated through placement in a special class.

Stage 4—Defining the Problem. Once the information has been gathered, the teacher, counselor, administrator, school psychologist, and parent should meet to discuss the results of the information gathered together with goals for change. The nature of the problem will be determined at this time.

Stage 5—Determination of the Problem Solution. During this stage, alternatives to reach the best solution to the problem are discussed by the teacher, counselor, administrator, school psychologist, and parent(s). For example, the problem may be resolved by having the teacher and parent(s) work together. In this case, the student would remain in the regular classroom. The solution may be to have the student remain in the regular classroom and receive services from a resource teacher. On the other hand, the problem may be resolved by referring the student for placement in a special education class.

Stage 6—Stating Objectives. If the committee (teacher, counselor, administrator, school psychologist, special education teacher, and parent determines that the student needs to be placed in a special class, then an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) must be developed. This committee usually writes the IEP. The IEP contains objectives and means whereby these objectives will be achieved. (See Chapter 8)

Stage 7—Implementation of the Plan. When the IEP is complete, the student is referred to a special education class and the IEP process is developed by the school based committee.

Stage 8—Evaluation. Evaluation is an ongoing process and the student is observed continuously. The special education teacher determines whether the student is meeting objectives stated in the IEP. If the student is having difficulty in meeting objectives, then the special education teacher may consult with the counselor, parent(s), and administrator to determine whether another course of action is required. The special education teacher also would consult with the counselor, parent(s), and administrator even if the student is satisfactorily achieving.

Stage 9—Termination. The goal is to return the student to a regular class. Therefore, the special education teacher may determine that the student has met the objectives and is ready to return to the regular class. A committee consisting of administrator, special education teacher, classroom teachers, parent(s), counselor, and school psychologist meet to determine whether the student is eligible to be returned to the regular class. If the student is returned to the regular classroom, the consulting process continues by monitoring the student's success.

Identifying a student with special needs is only one of the teacher's consultation functions. Teachers also may function as a consultant in any of the following ways:

1. Identifying academic deficiencies and abilities of their students.
2. Parent conferences.
3. Identifying strengths and weaknesses in classroom management (with the other teachers' permission).
4. Interpreting grades and standardized tests results to students and their parents.
5. Helping students to make decisions about their goals both in and out of school.

Mickelson and Davis (1977) presented a consultation model that follows a problem-solving approach. This consultation model contains three stages and includes the skills necessary to conduct a consultation. While the model was designed for the school counselor, the teacher, acting as consultant, may find it useful. Information derived from the model is presented in Table 11.4.

This model is rather simple to follow. Active listening, feedback, and developing a plan of action are the most important skills which need to be practiced. If you were to choose this model, we would suggest that you also include some means of evaluation.

Teachers are in a unique position to become an effective consultant in the school. They know their students through frequent contact. It is, therefore, important for the teacher to become familiar with the applicability of models presented in this section.

TABLE 11.4
Consultation Model that Follows A Problem-solving Approach

Stage	Skill	Functions
Establishing the Relationship	Acceptance	Consultant expresses concern.
	Active Listening	Teacher presents more data.
	Acknowledging Strengths	Teacher has had success in the past and the counselor recognizes that the setback is temporary.
	Active Listening	Consultant is beginning to grasp the magnitude of the problem by the teacher.
Identifying the Problem	Feedback	Based on information obtained from the classroom.
	Active Listening and Feedback	
	Concreteness	The consultant wants the teacher to be more specific.
	Commitment	The teacher has stated readiness to do something and a specific behavior has been identified.
	Active Listening	Clarification of the problem.
	Test Alternatives	The consultant and teacher together develop a list of strategies that might work.
Facilitating Change	Support	The consultant agrees and reinforces what the teacher has been saying.
	Developing a Plan of Action	Summary of what the teacher is going to do.

NOTE. From "A Consultation Model for the School Counselor" by D. J. Mickelson and J. L. Davis, 1977, *The School Counselor,* pp. 100-102. Copyright 1977 by APGA. Adapted by permission.

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

Helping Parents in Parent-Child Relationships

Helping parents in their role as parents is an important area for which teachers need to become familiar. Today, parent-child relationship programs and books are designed to help parents cope effectively with problems that commonly arise. According to Cooney (1981) parent groups meet to teach specific parenting skills to improve communication skills, to enhance children's cognitive functioning, and to promote parental self-understanding.

In this section will be described some of the programs and books available commercially to those interested and concerned with helping parents in their roles as parents. Because of the large number of books and programs available, only a sample of materials available will be described in the section entitled Parent Effective Programs.

A book using Adlerian methods entitled *Guiding the Family: Practical Counseling Techniques* (1985) by Grunwald and McAbee contains concepts for helping parents relate more effectively with children and to overcome problems. The concepts presented would be helpful for teachers so as to be better able to assist parents in parent-child relationships.

A Major Source of Family Problems

The major source of family problems is ineffective communication among family members. According to Framo (1981):

> Parents tend to do to children what was done to them, or in their efforts to undo what was done to them, will commit other wrongs to their children. Consequently one sees children exploited, parentified, shamed, overindulged, infantilized, teased, humiliated, seduced, neglected, persecuted, and sometimes murdered. (p. 212)

Parenting, then, is understood to be a learning experience. In our parent conferences, we often find that parents are confused about dealing with their child's school problems. Parental lack of adequate self-understanding and their ineffective communication skills seem to be the primary sources of this confusion.

Most of today's parents came from homes in which both parents were present; however, today one parent may be rearing the child. The other parent may fail to pay child support or may not visit regularly with the child. On the other hand, even when both parents are home a lack of communication may exist among family members.

Satir (1972) described four patterns of communication that cause difficulty:

> 1. *Placate*—so the other person doesn't get mad.
>
> 2. *Blame*—so the other person will regard you as strong (if he goes away it will be his fault not yours).
>
> 3. *Compute*—with the resultant message that you are attempting to deal with the threat as though it were harmless, and you are trying to establish your self-worth by using big words.
>
> 4. *Distract*—so you ignore the threat, behaving as though it were not there (maybe if you do this long enough, it really will go away). (p. 63)

In communicating with students, it is important that individual self worth is prevented from becoming fragmented. Communicate not only by words but also by actions. Nelson and Decker (1981) developed a parenting course for their high school students. This course was well received and demonstrated that parenting skills can be taught.

Other studies (Terkelson, 1976; Hammond & Schutz, 1980) have demonstrated that parent education classes have a positive influence on attitudes and behaviors of both parents and children. While early studies focused primarily on parenting infants, increasing attention is being given to parenting skills from birth through adulthood. Much of the literature on parenting fails to identify which aspect of training has been responsible for changes in attitudes or behaviors. In fact, because most parents seek assistance at the time of a crisis, information on training for parenting prior to the recognition of a crisis is limited. The need for teachers and counselors is to include some education for parents of their students as well as initiation for students of some education in preparation for parenthood.

PARENT EFFECTIVENESS PROGRAMS

A number of commercially published parent effectiveness programs are on the market. The purpose of this section is to acquaint the reader with a representative sample of these programs and books available on parenting.

A description of the content will be included to provide a brief understanding of the scope of each program or book. Additional books and periodicals that may be helpful to those who desire additional information and suggestions for improving parent-child relationships are listed in the Suggested Reading at the end of this Chapter.

STEP Program

The Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) Program was developed by Don Dinkmeyer and Gary D. McKay and is published by the American Guidance Services, Publisher's Building, Circle Pine, Minnesota 55014.

The *STEP* program consists of a leader's manual, parent handbook, five audio cassettes, discussion guide cards, posters, and charts. This program is divided into nine sessions lasting from one and one-half to two hours. During each session, participants discuss the assigned reading, listen to audio cassettes, work on activities, role-play, and discuss problem situations. Each participant is encouraged to practice during the next week those concepts learned during the session.

The following topics were included in the *STEP* program:

Understanding Children's Behavior and
  Misbehavior
Understanding How Children Use Emotions to
  Involve Parents and the "Good Parent"
Encouragement
Communication: Listening
Communication: Exploring Alternatives and
  Expressing your Ideas and Feelings to Children
Developing Responsibility

Decision Making for Parents
Family Meeting
Developing Confidence and Using Your Potential

How to Talk so Kids Will Listen

How to Talk so Kids Will Listen was developed by Adele Faber and Elaine Mazlish and is published by the Negotiation Institute, Inc., 230 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10069.

This program consists of a chairperson's guide which includes a workbook, pocket cards, puzzles and materials, plus six cassettes, reading materials ("How to Talk so Kids Will Listen and Listen so Kids Will Talk" and "Liberated Parents/Liberated Children").

The following topics are included in the course:

Helping Children Cope with Their Feelings
Engaging Cooperation
Alternatives to Punishment
Encouraging Autonomy
Praise
Freeing Children From Playing Roles
Final Review

Parent Effectiveness Training (PET)

Parent Effectiveness Training (PET) was developed by Thomas Gordon. His book, based on the course, is published by Peter H. Wyden, 750 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017. The following topics are included in the book and course:

Parents are Blamed but not Trained
Parents are Persons, not Gods
How to Listen so Kids Will Talk to You
Putting Your Active Listening Skill to Work
How to Listen to Kids too Young to Talk Much
How to Talk so Kids will Listen to You
Putting "I-Messages" to Work
Changing Unacceptable Behavior
Inevitable Parent-Child Conflicts
Parental Power: Necessary and Justified

The "No-Lose" Method for Resolving Conflicts
Parents' Fears and Concerns
Putting the "No-Lose" Methods to Work
How to Avoid Being Fired as a Parent
How Parents can Prevent Conflicts by Modifying Themselves
The Other Parents of Your Children

Making Contact: A Parent-Child Communication Skill Program by Care Terkelson

This program was reported in the *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling Journal,* December, 1976 and deserves attention. It is a program which involves both parents and their children. Concepts developed by Thomas Gordon are incorporated into the program.

Making Contact focuses on developing communication skills between parents and children. Parents and their children (grades 4 through 6) attended six, one-hour sessions where parents meet as a group and children meet as another group. After each group meets separately for six sessions they meet together for six additional sessions. Topics presented and discussed in each session are presented in Table 11.5. Based on results of study and program, both groups reported growth in themselves and the other person.

Transactional Analysis (TA)

Transactional Analysis (TA) was developed by Eric Berne. Centers for Transactional Analysis have conducted training sessions and workshops throughout the United States. This approach assumes that three states exist in all people: *Parent, Child,* and *Adult.* Also included and important for understanding TA are these four life positions with respect to oneself and others:

I'm Not Ok, You're Ok

I'm Not Ok, You're Not Ok

I'm Ok, You're Not Ok

I'm Ok, You're Ok (p. 43)

TABLE 11.5
Session Topics for Terkelson's Parent-Child Communication Skill Program Entitled *Making Contact*

Six One-Hour Sessions for Parents and Children in Separate Groups

Session	Parent Group	Children's Group
1	Introduction, Overview of Course, Existing Communication Patterns	Introduction, Overview of Course, Existing Communication Patterns
2	Listening to Children	Listening to Parents
3	Sending "I-Messages"	Sending "I-Messages"
4	Resolving Conflicts	Resolving Conflicts
5	Dealing With Value Collusions	Dealing with Value Collusions
6	Review	Review

Six Sessions for Parents and Children Meeting Together

Session	Parent-Child Group
1	Helping each parent-child pair feel at ease with one another
2	Listening to each other
3	Sending "I-Messages"
4	Resolving Conflicts
5	Dealing With Value Collusions
6	Review and Evaluation

NOTE. From "Making Contact: A Parent-child Communication Skill Program" by C. Terkelson, 1976, *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, pp. 93-95. Copyright 1976 by APGA Press. Adapted by permission.

The book *I'm Ok, You're Ok* by Thomas A. Harris is based on the TA course. It is published by Harper and Row, 10 East 53 Street, New York, NY 10022. Parents and teachers may wish to read the book for an understanding of the TA concepts and how they apply to relationships. *I'm Ok, You're Ok* includes the following topics:

Freud, Penfield, and Berne
Parent, Adult, and Child
Four Life Positions
We Can Change
Analyzing the Transaction
How We Differ
How We Use Time
P.A.C. and Marriage
P.A.C. and Adolescents
When Is Treatment Necessary?
P.A.C. and Moral Values
Social Implications of P.A.C.

A Field Guide to Human Relations

Bundy (1979) reported a field guide to a human relations week for students. This program was developed by the Tennessee Personnel and Guidance Association (TPGA) and the Tennessee Education Association (TEA) and utilized the concepts from Harris' book, *I'm Ok, You're Ok*. Activities for parents are suggested in relating to their children which include the following:

1. Sending a letter from students to parents explaining the week and making suggestions for parent-child O.K. activities. Some examples include:
   a. Encouraging eye contact, i.e., demonstrate good listening skills by looking at the person with whom you are talking.
   b. Sharing O.K. feelings with family members.
   c. Giving a "warm fuzzy" to someone in the family at a certain time each day. (The term "warm fuzzy" refers to such concepts as giving compliments, expressing gratitude, giving praise, and offering special recognition.) "Warm fuzzies" may be expressed to other people as a way to help them feel good toward themselves. It is hoped that these good feelings will generate positive feelings toward others.

   d. Conducting a family meeting to discuss good things about the family and its members.

2. Holding O.K. parent meetings (P.T.A., etc.). (p. 174)

Bowdoin Method

The Bowdoin Method is published by Webster's International Tutoring Systems, Inc., 2416 Hillsboro Road, Nashville, Tennessee 37212. It is a program for involving parents in their children's education. The program uses filmstrips, cassettes, games, and books in a group approach to help parents become more effective. The approach is designed to help parents build self-confidence in themselves and their children while the parents assume the role of teacher. The program is to help parents spend useful time with their children without interfering with the ongoing pace of everyday activities. Teachers should find the material useful for inservice training programs as well.

Summary

In this section was presented a representative sample of the parenting programs and books available. A description of the content was included to provide a brief understanding of the scope of each program or book.

SUGGESTED READING

Select one of the programs or books described in the Selected Readings Section. Examine the materials carefully and discuss ways in which the program or book may be helpful to a teacher who may be required to make a presentation on effective parenting.

The following books and periodicals may be helpful to those who desire additional information and suggestions for improving parent-child relationships.

Arnold, L. (Ed). (1978). *Helping parents help their children.* New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Brownstone, J., & Dye, C. (1974). *Communication workshop for parents of adolescents, leader's guide.* Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Corsini, R. & Painter, G. (1975). *The practical parent.* New York: Harper & Row.

Eimers, R., & Aitchison, R. (1978). *Effective parents/ responsible children.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Frazier, F., & Matthes, W. (1975). Parent education: A comparison of Adlerian and behavioral approaches. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 10* (1), 31-38.

Galper, M. (1978). *Co-parenting.* Philadelphia: Running Press.

Gosciewski, W. (1976). *Effective child rearing.* New York: Human Sciences Press.

Guerney, B., Jr. (Ed.) (1977). *Relationship enhancement: Skill training programs for therapy, problem-prevention, and enrichment.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Klemer, R., & Smith, R. (1975). *Teaching about family relationships.* Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing.

Lamb, J., & Lamb W. (1977). *Parent education and elementary counseling.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Loven, M. D. (1978). Four alternative approaches to the family/school liaison role. *Psychology in the Schools, 15,* 553-559.

Patterson, G., & Gullion, M. (1977). *Living with children: New methods for parents and teachers (Rev. ed).* Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Rossi, A., Kagen, J., & Hareven, T. (1978). *The family.* New York: W. W. Norton.

Satir, V., Stachowiak, J., & Taschman, H. A. (1975). *Helping families to change.* New York: Jason Aronson.

Scholastic Dimensions. (1975). *Family values kits.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Scholastic Book Service.

West, J. (1978). A model for parent education. *Individual Psychologist, 1,* 11.

Wood, S., Bishop, R., & Cohen, D. (1978). *Parenting: Four patterns in child rearing.* New York: Hart.

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Cooney, J. (1981). Parent education: A focus on the issues. *The School Counselor, 29,* 97-102.

Dinkmeyer, D., Sr., & Dinkmeyer, D., Jr. (1979). Working with teachers: Inservice & C groups. *Counseling and human development, 11,* 5.

Dinkmeyer, D., & McKay, G. D. (1976). *Systematic training for effective parenting (STEP).* Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Services.

Faber, A., & Mazlish, E. (1981). *How to talk so kids will listen.* New York: Negotiation Institute.

Framo, J. L. (1981). Family theory and therapy. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 15,* 205-213.

Gordon, T. (1978). *Parent effectiveness training.* New York: Peter H. Wyden.

Gordon, T. (1974). *Teacher effectiveness training. New York: Peter H. Wyden.*

Gorin, R. E. (1977). A human-relations course for classroom teachers. *The School Counselor, 25,* 130-133.

Grunwald, B.B., & McAbee, H.V. (1985). *Guiding the family: Practical counseling techniques.* Muncie, IN: Accelerated Development.

Harris, T. A. (1969). *I'm ok—you're ok—a practical guide to transactional analysis.* New York: Harper & Row.

Hammond, J. M., & Schutz, D. S. (1980). A communication workshop that works for high school students and their parents. *The School Counselor, 27,* 300-304.

Kurpius, D. (1978). Consultation theory and process: An integrated model. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 56,* 335-338.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). *A theory of human motivation and personality (2nd ed.).* New York: Harper & Row.

Mickelson, D. J., & Davis, J. L. (1977). A consultation model for the school counselor. *The School Counselor, 25,* 98-103.

Moracco, J. (1981). A comprehensive approach to human relations training for teachers. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 21,* 129.

Moracco, J., & Higgins, E. (1985). *Comprehensive approach to human relations development.* Muncie, IN: Accelerated Development.

Nelson, A., & Decker, T. (1981). Playing house is one thing but parenting is something else. *Today's Education, 70,* 44-45.

Ponzo, Z. (1976). Integrating techniques from five counseling theories. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 54,* 415-419.

Satir, V. (1972). *Peoplemaking.* Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books.

Stanford, G., & Roark, A. E. (1974). *Human interactions in education.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Stoops, E., & King-Stoops, J. (1981). Discipline suggestions for classroom teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan, 63,* 68.

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CHAPTER 12

TEACHING STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL PROBLEMS

This chapter is developed out of the need for teachers to understand several specific problems likely to be confronted in the line of duty. Needs of all students must be recognized and met if students are to develop their fullest potential. For the most part the teacher must recognize special problem areas and initially deal directly with the student and the problem area.

Some students who have problems may be identified easily. The delinquent student may be recognized easily especially if the delinquent behavior occurs in the classroom. But for many other students in need of special help the need is not so apparent. Some aspects of drug or alcohol abuse, for example, are not readily identified. Less obvious are frustrations with the loss of a parent through divorce or death which often go unnoticed. A seriously withdrawn child may appear to be merely shy or quiet. All students experiencing one of these problems must be identified before they can be helped—whether help is to be provided by the classroom teacher or provided by a person to whom the classroom teacher has made a referral.

In this chapter are discussed four of the special problem areas teachers are likely to face—drug and alcohol abuse, students from single-parent families, delinquent students, and death and dying.

DRUG AND ALCOHOL ABUSE

The percentage of high school students who use or who have ever used alcohol has remained fairly stable over a six-year period, but the use of other drugs has dropped off, according to a nationwide survey of more than 16,000 students conducted by the University of Michigan Institute of Social Research.

In the Michigan study, "Student Drug Use in America: 1975-1980," reported that 72% of the students were currently using alcohol in 1980, compared with 68% in 1975. A total of 9.1% of the 1980 class reported daily marijuana use, compared with 10.7% in 1978. Among the 1980 respondents, 65% reported having tried an illicit drug. For marijuana, alcohol, and cigarettes, most initial experiences took place before tenth grade. (NIAAA Information and Feature Service, p. 1)

The purpose in this section is not to review the causes of alcohol or drug abuse, or to provide indepth information regarding types, or classification of drugs. Rather we approach the area of alcohol or drug abuse as an area where teachers might do some teaching (drug education).

Drug education is a controversial topic in schools. Many educators argue that the less said about the subject the better. This group of educators argue that drug education programs educate toward use of drugs rather than away from use. Many drug education programs have involved inexperienced and unknowledgeable, but well meaning, teachers telling students a number of inaccurate or slanted facts about drug use. Researchers have found that students taught extensive factual information about drugs later used more drugs than students who were not taught facts (Larimer, Tucker, & Brown, 1970). These presentations were designed to convince students that drugs are bad.

Students need to learn that drugs are neither good or bad, but what people do with them does make them good or bad. Drug education programs should focus on the behavioral realities associated with drug use and not on the drugs themselves. Many a well-meaning teacher has spent too much time talking about slang terms used for drugs and not enough time with the part these drugs are playing in the lives of real people. Drug education programs must provide students with all the information and understanding they need to make realistic decisions about their involvement with drugs. Students will not make decisions on drug information alone. Students will take drug facts and incorporate these facts into self value systems. Therefore we advocate that drug education programs be geared toward value orientation and decision-making.

Not only do a variety of uniquely different value orientations exist in our society but also these orientations often are different across generations. Youngsters are quick to point out laws which give immediate access to alcohol at 18 or 21 years of age. Young people also use the alcohol abuse statistics to point out inconsistencies regarding alcohol and marijuana use. This should not become the major focus of drug education programs, and it is likely to be so when drug facts become the primary focus of programs.

According to Slimmon (1975) the goal of values education is to help students become aware of what they cherish and to refine these tendencies for action to the point where they become dependable references for responsible decision making. The advantage of using values education as a means of teaching drug education is that it forces teacher and students to think about the process which is taking place in the classroom. In other words, the approach takes much of the drug information, much of that information confused or incorrect, examines it, organizes it, and eventually makes some sense out of it. This process may involve correcting some of the confused or incorrect information that students reveal. This becomes the appropriate time to teach drug "facts."

One study by Swanson (1974) assessed junior high school student evaluations of a drug education program taught by values-oriented and traditionally oriented teachers. The values-oriented teachers used values clarification activities and the traditionally oriented teachers used a lecture-discussion format. Students rated the values-oriented teachers as more informed, more relevant, and more sincere than the traditionally oriented teachers.

In a study designed to measure the effectiveness of a drug prevention education program in grades two through six, Kearney and Hines (1980) reported that children significantly increased their feelings of self-worth, decision-making abilities, factual knowledge about drugs, and improved their attitude towards use and misuse of drugs. Teachers in the experimental group used self-esteem experiences, values and decision-making activities, and drug information in their teaching. The success of this Appleton, Wisconsin project lead it to be disseminated nationwide via the National Diffusion Network for replication.

We should hasten to add that values education or values clarification are not without their critics. Chng (1980) summarized four major criticisms of the approach. First, the contention is that values clarification focuses on the process of valuing and is free of moral communications. She argued that before one can discuss process, one must have relevant information. A second criticism centers around "ethical relativism," or the belief that all values are equally valid and morally defensible. She argued that much more is involved in the question of whether one should or should not use illicit drugs. Third, a criticism is leveled at the Coronado Program which claimed to be value free. Yet the program had as one objective the education of students against drug misuse. Finally, the criticism is leveled which suggests that youngsters have not developed a substantial value system and is likely to rely too heavily on peer pressure.

Brooks (1971) summarized the problems with many drug education programs and offered a suggestion for improving programs. He said:

> Past experiences in the area of drug education have produced mostly negative results. The general kind of drug education that's been provided our schools and

> with which we've trained our teachers has been inclined to turn kids on to drugs instead of turn them off. So we're seeing the necessity of some radical changes in the field of teaching teachers to teach about drugs. (p. 127)

Two additional areas are presented to assist in working with students related to drug and alcohol abuse. The first involves physical signs teachers might use to determine possible drug or alcohol involvement by students. This list was provided by Moses and Burger (1975):

> 1. a sudden and continuing drop in school grades
> 2. class-cutting and truancy without apparent reason or shame
> 3. a marked mood change unrelated to normal adolescent behavior
> 4. constant depression, extreme belligerence towards [teachers]
> 5. a change in friends to those his [or her] parents disapprove of
> 6. a sudden refusal to bring new friends home
> 7. a drifting away of older friends and neighbors. (p. 212)

The second area is to examine characteristics of persons who use drugs versus those who do not. Tec (1972) in a study of suburban Westchester County, New York revealed the following:

1. The less satisfaction adolescents derive from various aspects of their high school status the more likely are they to use marijuana.

2. The more teachers with whom they are pleased, the less likely are they to use marijuana with regularity, and the more likely are they to be totally disinterested in ever using it. Similarly, the more teachers students feel are pleased with them, the less likely are they to be regular marijuana users, and the more likely are they to be total abstainers.

3. Those who aspire to become the "best" athlete comprised the lowest proportion of marijuana users.

4. Students who aspired to become professionals (doctors, scientists, lawyers, etc.) were less likely to use marijuana than those who had no plans at all. Students who aspired to

> become artists comprised the highest proportion of marijuana users. Students who aspired to be laborers or tradesmen were not as prone to use marijuana as most other groups.

So what should teachers do? All teachers, regardless of the discipline taught, should incorporate some drug education into the curriculum. The school counselor often can serve as a consultant in planning this instruction. Most school systems have materials which can be used in planning for such instruction. Teachers can develop a special unit which focuses on drug and alcohol to be used during the school year. Teachers may begin to examine their own feelings and emotions as well as their roles and relationships with students. Teachers must view drug education as an ongoing process, used throughout the year. If the values clarification approach is used, it offers an opportunity for teachers to talk about drug problems without talking about drugs.

And what is a teacher to do when a student is suspected of using and/or abusing drugs and alcohol? First the teacher reviews the communication techniques discussed in Chapter 4. These techniques should prove quite useful as the teacher attempts to establish a relationship with the student so as to help the student feel at liberty to discuss any problems. The goal of the teacher in these discussions should be to get the student to examine his/her value system, to sort out and analyze reasons for decisions and eventually to come to grips with why they do the things they do. This should be done in a nonjudgmental atmosphere where the student is able to examine the probable consequences of decisions made.

Second, when teachers feel they are not capable of handling a situation, it is appropriate to consult with other professionals or refer the student to the school counselor. Including others in the process of identification and counseling, not only helps the student, but also helps the teacher learn new behaviors and methods for dealing with future problems.

STUDENTS FROM SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES

Perhaps the most traumatic event in a student's life is the loss of a parent. Children depend on their parents for love and security and a bonding system develops early in life. When a parent leaves this relationship, the loss is often shattering. Frequently this loss occurs without the child having been prepared. The loss for younger children is hard to comprehend and makes little or no sense; often the loss causes disruption, agony, insecurity, guilt, isolation, and feeling of being different which are all a part of the emotional picture.

The divorce rate in the United States has doubled since 1965. Almost half of the nations juvenile population has been touched by divorce; some nine million children now live in single-parent families. The "typical" American family is no longer. In the United States about fifteen percent of all families at any given time are single-parent units. Seventy-five percent of all divorces occur in households with children less than 18 years old. The estimate is that 1 out of 6 school children now live with only one parent and that 2 out of 5 will live in a single-parent family for some part of their childhood (Hammond, 1979).

As these statistics suggest, teachers will encounter large numbers of students from single-parent families. A growing number of students will come to school having experienced the loss of a parent from the home. Many of these students will adjust to the loss with relative ease. They will not require special attention from school officials. Others will require teachers and the school in general to alter typical methods for relating with students.

Teachers are often the last to know that a student's parents are divorcing. Some parents worry about prejudicing their child's teacher against the child by labeling them "children of divorce." More likely is the failure of many parents to understand that a major crisis in the life of their child does appear to show repercussions in behavior and performance in school. Nor do parents seem to realize that in order to relate constructively with alarming changes in the child, the teacher needs to know about underlying problems.

Many teachers can be immediately sensitive to the child's distress and respond accordingly. Some teachers may expect children to separate their personal family difficulty from academic performance and continue to function academically as if nothing has happened. Some students will be able to do this sorting but they are likely to be exceptions to typical behavior.

Kelly and Wallerstein (1976a, 1976b, 1977) have studied effects of parental divorce on children. They have not found defined stages of responses in children. They concluded that the effects are shared, age-related responses which are tied to the child's developmental stage, environment, and relationship to both parents. Among the responses which may be expected are guilt, denial, and fantasy to cope with the guilt, temper tantrums, restlessness, irritability, moodiness, a sense of vulnerability, and manipulative and exploitative tendencies as adaptive measures.

According to Kelly and Wallerstein (1977) some children appear to be helped through their crisis by a close relationship and friendly reliance on a special teacher. Younger children may climb into the laps of teachers to receive nurturance and solace. Older youngsters sometimes stay close by teachers to receive assurance that they are doing their school work satisfactorily. Preadolescent and adolescent youngsters frequently seek to discuss their situation with someone outside the family. The teacher is frequently the person to whom these youngsters turn for an empathic ear.

Teachers need and want to know what can and cannot be done to help the student through this disrupting period. What the student seeks and needs more than anything else is closeness, love, and understanding.

One thing the teacher can do is to refer these children to the school counselor during periods of stress. In some instances, the school counselor will not be available to step in and offer comfort during the rough periods in the child's life. Therefore, the teacher may be expected to provide some support to the child. Teachers can accept responsibility for developing some basic "counseling" skills that can assist in this process. Moreover, schools can increase the opportunities for teachers to learn such techniques through inservice workshops.

Four ways are suggested in which the classroom teacher can respond to these changes and help the student cope with the turmoil and emotional upheaval he/she is experiencing. The first step is teacher awareness. The classroom teacher who knows about and is sensitive to stress in children is a rich resource for children and their parents. It is important for a teacher who observes some sudden change in behavior or other symptoms suggestive of stress to discuss the observations with the child and/or parents before the child's learning is seriously compromised.

Second, teachers can become aware of and act on knowledge about the child's situation. The empathic teacher can recognize the child's distress and provide an environment that makes the most of the child's efforts to cope. It may be acknowledgment of a child's temporary difficulty in meeting classroom responsibilities. It may be an indication of support by saying something like "I know this is a hard time for you."

Third, teachers can be resources in the development and incorporation of curriculum and attitudinal changes in the classroom. There may be no solace in numbers, but classroom teaching that acknowledges the many variations in family life can help children feel more secure with their own family structure, even if it appears so different to them.

Fourth, teachers need to know their own personal feelings about divorce and children of divorce Santrock and Tracy (1978) reported a study of teacher education students who viewed a film about a boy at home, at school, and on the playground. One group was told that the boy was from a single-parent home and the other group was told that the boy was from an intact (two parent) home. These teacher education students were asked to rate the boy on ten personality traits. Those who were told that the boy was from a single-parent home rated him significantly lower in happiness, ability to get along with others, emotional adjustment, and morality. They rated him significantly higher in introversion, anxiety, and deviance. There was no significant difference in the ratings the two groups gave on need for achievement, aggressiveness, and sex-role adjustment. Participants also were asked to predict the boy's school behavior. Those told he was from a single parent home predicted (at a significant level) that he would have difficulty coping with stressful situations at school, and rated him lower in popularity with classmates, likelihood to assume a leadership position, and likelihood to work well unsupervised.

This study suggests the need for teachers to examine their personal attitudes to avoid the "self-fulfilling prophesy" that children of divorce are different from what they really are. Children will respond to the expectations of teachers and these expectations need to be objective and realistic as they relate to interacting with children of divorce.

Clay (1980) reported that teachers and schools need to become more accessible to both parents of children of divorce. She reported that single parents are concerned because schools tend to relate to children as though they have two parents in the home. School activities are held at inaccessible times for parents and single parents are often unable to provide transportation so these students can participate in extracurricular activities. She also reported that single parents often find that teachers blame all behavior problems on the home situation without exploring other causes.

Ricci (1979) found that cards on students with addresses and phone numbers of parents have space for only one address and phone number. Report cards and notices are often sent to only one parent. She reported that the 1974 Buckley amendment denies access to the school records to the parent without custody. Both divorced parents can communicate to the school, in writing, that they both are interested in the child's welfare and progress.

Damon (1979) provided a list of ten tips for teachers in dealing with children in crisis situations because of the loss of a parent through divorce.

1. Know your own feelings about separation and divorce.
2. Be alert to personality and behavior changes.
3. Seek support and information from colleagues and parents. Establish a rapport with parents through conferences, class newsletters, notes home, positive comments to students, telephone conversations, etc.
4. Provide time to talk with students about separation and divorce.
5. Find out custody and visitation responsibilities and be prepared to accept some assignments that may be late because of a visitation arrangement that may have hindered the child from completing the assignment on time.
6. Be alert to whether the child is sleeping and eating properly.
7. Provide time for students to talk about their feelings and to describe what is happening when and if they want to, without the teacher commenting in a helpful, "teacherly" or judgmental manner. Being a listener who is trying to understand without doing more than that can be a tremendous support, provided it is done sincerely, and as regularly as is realistic.
8. Provide students with much positive comments and opportunities to excel and be in charge.
9. Share aspects of your own life and family background.
10. Do not presume anything. In many instances a separation or divorce may improve the home life of the child. (p. 72)

As divorce statistics continue to rise and more and more families become part of these statistics, the classroom teacher is faced with the problem of helping children from these families cope with the realities of their world. Teachers can expect some of these children to bring frustrations into the classroom which they cannot handle alone. The emotional response to the loss of a parent emerges in the classroom. *Teacher awareness and willingness to provide a supportive setting to these youngsters will make schools more responsive to changes caused by divorce.* By doing so, teachers and schools can continue to meet their responsibility of helping all children learn at the level of their potential.

DEATH AND DYING

Death and dying are subjects that are often evaded in our society. They are, however, as much a part of human growth and development as being born. It may seem strange to consider death as a part of the life cycle but it is so because it brings partial closure to a life story.

Children cannot avoid the death experience. Most children lose a pet to death. Robinson (1978) reported that one in every 20 children will lose a parent during childhood. Hymovitz (1979) estimated that children will see 18,000 deaths on television by the time they reach 14 years old. Many of these media deaths are often presented in a distorted manner where the "bad guy" gets killed. Children frequently see death in this sense as punishment.

Teachers need to examine their own attitudes toward death, understand the grief process, and learn some typical reactions of children to death. The interest in death and death education emerged as a major topic of discussion with the work of Elizabeth Kubler-Ross (1969). Many teachers may have developed reactions to death which will hinder their work with a child who has experienced the death of a loved one. Sylvia Plath (1972) described her experience of crying at her father's grave years after his death:

> I remembered that I had never cried for my father's death. My mother hadn't cried either. She had just smiled and said what a merciful thing it was for him he had died, because if he had lived, he would have been crippled and an invalid for life, and he couldn't have stood that, he would rather have died than had that happen. (p. 137)

The gestaltists would call Sylvia Plath's experience one of unfinished business. Teachers should explore their own personal lives to determine if areas of unfinished business exist surrounding the area of death. It seems safe to say that a teacher who brings to the discussions about death areas of unfinished business will have difficulty relating to students on the subject. Teachers should seek inservice training, read books, and talk with other persons about the topic of death. Teachers can explore their own attitudes by anticipating reactions from students and imagining how they would handle them. Role playing these situations should prove to be quite useful in this exploratory process.

These personal attitudes are influenced by those of our society. What are the attitudes and factors which influence how we see death? First, many have tried to accept and transcend death through a religious belief in some form of existence after death which minimizes the importance of physical death. Secondly, many believe in a kind of social mortality which is the belief that people live on through what they create—their work or their children. If these beliefs are held, they help us assuage the threat of death.

Another factor that has lead to the difficulty of dealing with death is urbanization. People living in cities are further removed from the experience of the cycle of life and death than are people who live in agrarian societies. We live and work in controlled environments which make us feel almost independent from natural forces. The accent on our urban societies is on fast-paced, efficient activity and this is seen as vital to our survival. Many see death from a distance; thus, we have little experience which leads to difficulty in coping with it.

Advances in medical science is another factor which influences us. The use of antibiotics and vaccines, heart-lung machines, artificial kidneys, refined surgical procedures, respirators, and so forth prolong life and delay extensive suffering and early death thereby giving a presumed sense of mastery over death. Therefore, the need for thoughts concerning the meaning of life and death seem less important.

Secularization is another factor which leads to difficulty in dealing with death. The value system which is not based on religion or metaphysics experiences more difficulty because death becomes almost impossible to comprehend. The complete extinction of one's self with no redeeming features and no moral significance is an extremely frightening possibility.

In our society these factors are primarily responsible for the general attitude our society has toward death: denial. The emphasis is placed on living, youth, and being vigorous.

Teachers' attitudes related to death can play an important role in the quality of instruction on the subject. These attitudes may have been developed because of personal fears, lack of knowledge, or lack of experience. First, before the teacher can face death education seriously these attitudes must be explored and, where appropriate, altered so that better teaching can take place.

A second area of information for the teacher is an understanding of the grief process. Dying individuals, families of dying individuals, and families of the dead all go through similar stages in reaction to death. Kubler-Ross (1969) identified five stages in her book *On Death and Dying*. They can be summarized as follows:

> **Denial and Isolation.** "No, not me." This is the typical reaction of the dying person or the person who faces the death of a loved one. It helps cushion the impact of awareness that death is inevitable.
>
> **Rage and Anger.** "Why me?" There is resentment that others will remain healthy and alive. God is frequently the special target for this anger because He is regarded as imposing arbitrarily the death sentence. Kubler-Ross suggested to those who are shocked at this expression of anger that "God can take the anger."
>
> **Bargaining.** "Yes, me but just let me live until..." The fact of death is accepted but an offer is made to bargain for more time. Often this bargain is made with God, even though the person may not have been religious. The person may promise good behavior in exchange for another year of life.
>
> **Depression.** "Yes, me." First the person is sorry for all the wrongful deeds committed. Later a state of grief is entered which is in preparation for death. The person may not want to see anyone and may be quite withdrawn. The message is that unfinished business is being finished and he/she will be able to "let go peacefully." Kubler-Ross (1969) stated that this stage is painful for mourners but it is worse for the dying person who now realizes that everything will be lost.

> **Acceptance.** "My time is very close now and it is all right." When the earlier stages have been satisfactorily expressed the individual is accepting of death. It is neither happy or unhappy. "It is devoid of feeling but it is not resignation, it is really victory."

All people do not experience these stages in sequence. Sometimes people move beyond and then regress to an earlier stage. The stages do serve as a framework for teachers to understand the grieving process.

A third area of concern of the classroom teacher should be an understanding of the emotional responses of children to death. There appears to be a developmentally related understanding of death (see discussion of Piaget's stages in Chapter 2). Gordon and Klass (1979) have discussed the understanding level of children at various ages of the concept of death. Children from 3 to 5 years old appear to be ignorant of the meaning of the word "dead." They may be interested in the word although their concept is probably limited or erroneous. Children between ages of 5 and 9 years begin to understand the meaning of the word "dead" and can associate the word with "the end." Younger children in this 5 to 9 years of age group are often preoccupied with the coffin, the grave, and the service. By age 8 there is developing a questioning interest in what happens after death. Children 9 to 10 years old appear ready for a full explanation of death. They understand the concept but define it in reference to biological events. From about 11 years on children seem to respond to death much as do adults. In other words, they are more likely to experience the 5 stages of death referred to earlier. As they get older (upper teens) they are able to discuss death according to social value and meaning (war, abortion, murder, suicide).

Alan Wolfelt (1983) in his book *Helping Children Cope with Grief* offered caregiver behaviors that are appropriate for teachers. He identified 13 dimensions "typical of what frequently is exhibited by children experiencing grief" (p. 13). The 13 dimensions are shock/denial/disbelief/numbness, lack of feelings, physiological changes, regression, "big man" or "big woman" syndrome, disorganization and panic, explosive emotions, acting out behavior, fear, guilt and self blame, relief, loss/emptiness/sadness, and reconciliation. For each dimension, Wolfelt discussed and illustrated what occurs with children who have grief as a result of loss of a dear one. Wolfelt then provided caregiving behaviors that could be used by teachers. Two of the most fundamental are creating an atmosphere for children's questions and creating a caring relationship.

With this information the teacher may still have questions about how to proceed with death education. Keith and Ellis (1978) stated that teachers may encounter many of the same objections to death education as are raised against sex education. Hymovitz (1979) suggested that death education should be consistent with the age, maturity, readiness, and receptivity of learners. Freeman (1978) recommended that input be requested from parents, the principal, and the curriculum consultant before death education is begun. In fact, she staged that permission to participate is not a bad idea. She identified several questions which the teacher must confront before attempting death education. Should death education be integrated into other studies? Will exercises be frightening to children? What are the religious and sociological implications of teaching about death?

And what should be the goals of death education? Hymovitz (1979) identified the following goals:

1. To teach that death and dying are part of life and living.
2. To help students to manage realistically with the idea of their own death and the deaths of significant others.
3. To help implement necessary institutional and attitudinal changes through death education.
4. To appreciate the impact of death upon the human creative impulses in music, art, religion, literature, and philosophy.
5. To broaden the conceptualization and interpretation of the meaning of life's end in order to live more fully in the time given to us.
6. To understand our common destiny as part of the effort to cherish, to dignify, and to respect, individually and collectively, our precious and unique cultural, religious, historical, and artistic contributions. (p. 104)

Just as taboos on many other topics of discussion are in the process of dissipation, so must the taboo of death education in the schools dissipate. The authors believe that teachers have a moral obligation to include death education in the curriculum. Teachers must relate to all responses of children, including their responses to death. *Teachers must help youngsters learn to deal comfortably and productively with death at the same level with which they relate to other areas of their lives.*

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The estimate is that the population of persons between the ages of 10 and 17 numbered 29.4 million in 1978. The number of delinquency cases which reached the courts in 1978 was 1.3 million (*Statistical Abstracts of the United States: 1980*). In the latter 1970s and continuing in 1980s problems of the juvenile offender have received considerable interest through prevention programs as well as through state legislation which have attempted to reduce the numbers of juvenile offenders in the community. All resources in communities are being evaluated as means of helping reduce levels and rates of delinquent crimes. The school is being viewed as a primary resource in this effort.

From available data may be concluded that an organized social environment may be a primary factor influencing both delinquent and law-abiding behavior, and that to reduce the delinquent behavior the social environment needs to be altered. Further, it appears that school is the single most influential social environment with respect to delinquent behavior. This recognition leads to a needed change in the school environment to affect the curriculum. This is aimed at providing more organized educational experiences designed to tackle the problem. This change necessitates that the school work with other community agencies which also have interests in youth and the elimination of delinquency.

In recent years the juvenile justice system has received considerable attention as it suggested reforms and programs aimed at prevention. Attention has focused on the group of children often classified as "undisciplined." They are children who are truant from school, who have run away from home, or whose parents find them too difficult to manage. They have not yet committed an act for which, if they were an adult, they could be prosecuted. The estimate is that children in this category now occupy more than forty percent of the caseload of juvenile courts. Several states (including New York and North Carolina) have enacted legislation designed to divert these "undisciplined" youth from the system designed for those who have committed a crime. Efforts are dependent upon the community to develop alternative programs for these children in community-based residential treatment facilities. The development of community-based means that the public schools must provide programs for many students who would have previously been sent to "training schools."

Several attempts have been made in an effort to keep delinquent youth in school. According to Schaum (1978), an In-School Alternative Learning Program offers good possibilities. With the aid of school supervision and with a highly structured center designed to encourage discipline, learning, individual counseling, and group counseling techniques, the program shows promise for academic achievement for the delinquent. Four ingredients are necessary for success of this program:

> 1. The student must be confronted with a positive program of academic achievement.
>
> 2. Nothing less than complete adherence to the rules should be accepted.
>
> 3. The school psychologist or counselor must be involved because the student needs much help in order to reject irresponsible behavior patterns.
>
> 4. There must be an opportunity for the student to participate in group counseling with a variety of peer personalities under the guidance of a counselor, so that some reconstruction can begin. (p. 280)

This program takes place mainly in the classroom. The school counselor arranges the student's schedule so that the student has regular class assignments which are coordinated with work in the In-School Alternative Learning Center. During the course of the program, students participating were restricted in their interactions with other students and were motivated daily on their progress. The restrictions seemed to produce motivation to achieve and return to the regular school routine.

Toth (1979) described a Life Skills Course designed to facilitate the assimilation of youthful offenders in the regular schools. Students selected to participate in the program were on probation, had poor socialization skills, especially with authority figures, and were considered to be "high-risk" with regard to school drop-out and/or further involvement with the law. The course was designed for ninth graders and focused on communication, problem solving, values, law, pre-employment training, sexuality, and drugs. Role playing situations based on the students own experiences served as the vehicle through which content was presented.

The program is expensive in that one professional works with a small number of students. Yet the success of the program, where students have remained in school during their first year of high school, cannot be measured in monetary value.

These are but two of the many examples of programs designed to help delinquents remain in school. Because of such programs and the results obtained, the future may be much better for the young delinquent and schools may have a major role in the change. These young people need assistance and guidance of teachers and counselors who are able to see their needs and help them learn to function in society.

The most ambitious efforts in the school cannot prevent delinquency. The school personnel must work cooperatively with other community agency personnel in developing programs for this segment of the school population.

The teacher who works with a delinquent student should first recognize that this type is a uniquely different student from those who are not potential delinquents. These youngsters often lack an adequate self-concept, have poor judgment, and cannot maintain an appropriate balance between their own needs and needs of others. The teacher who seeks to help each student achieve and retain confidence and self-respect at school is setting a basic foundation necessary for preventing delinquency and for helping those who have already become a part of the delinquent subculture. It is a tremendous professional challenge.

For assistance in helping children and their parents gain a better self-concept, Frey and Carlock (1984) stressed that developing a healthy self-concept is a process and that the self-concept changes as one develops, interacts with the environment, and assimilates what one has learned and experienced (p. 35). In this book *Enhancing Self Esteem* they suggested activities that teachers could use. Building a positive rather than a negative self concept requires time, interaction with people who care—teachers can have a significant role in the process.

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CHAPTER 13

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF TEACHERS

Without question teachers must be prepared for the many challenges which will confront them in their career. With all the demands made on teachers for the physical, intellectual, social, and moral development of students assigned to them, no wonder problems of teacher stress and eventual burn-out develop for many. This chapter was developed out of the need of teachers to have some practical forewarning that may help them deal effectively with the difficult problems of teaching they will face in their career. Teachers must reconcile the discrepancy between their expectations for themselves, the system's expectations of them, and the reality of the classroom situation itself. Teachers must be willing to operate from a position of trial and error, without fear of making mistakes. They also must realize that the path to teaching success is different for each teacher. The entire contents of this book are designed to make smooth the transition from preservice education to actual teaching and to provide some basis for inservice learning for those already active in the teaching profession.

FIRST YEAR PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES

Charters (1970) reported that 79.2% of males and 65.5% of females survived longer than the first year of teaching. Mark and Anderson (1978) found that 81.0% of males and 82.1% of females survived the first year of teaching. The latter data suggested that the percent surviving is better than the preceding data but there is still a steep decreasing survival slope over time. In an NEA nationwide opinion poll conducted by McGuire (1979), one-third of the respondents said they would not choose teaching again if they could go back to college and start over and 40% said they do not plan to remain in teaching until retirement.

Despite the importance of the first year of teaching, relatively little research has been reported concerning first year experiences. In order to evaluate and revise present teacher/counselor preparation programs, objective information about relevant attitudes, problems, and concerns faced by beginning teachers or counselors is needed.

Collea (1972) considered the intentions, self-perceptions, and role perceptions of the beginning teacher as a method of assessing the verbal behavior patterns of first-year teachers. Data suggested that intentions of first-year science teachers were in conflict. Beginning science teachers increased their desire to motivate students, and yet they decreased in their desire for student participation in classroom activities. Moreover, Collea found that these teachers experienced a conflict in role perception; they felt their principals wanted them to encourage and praise their students more, but at the same time exercise their authority in the classroom. The first-year science teachers found at the end of the year they were not only more direct in their classroom behavior but also motivating students less and having less student participation. Finally, data suggested that beginning science teachers' role perceptions moved away from perceptions of their principals concerning verbal behavior in the classroom.

Results of Collea's 1972 study are consistent with those of Moskowitz and Hayman (1974). They studied the teaching behavior of "best," typical, and first-year teachers in three urban junior high schools. Primary interest in this investigation was the behavior of new teachers, the way they changed over time, and their comparison with behaviors of best and typical experienced teachers. Moskowitz and Hayman suggested that beginning teachers are unprepared to deal with the difficulties they face, and that preservice preparation of teachers might be appropriate for helping teachers in this situation is devoid of hard research evidence.

At the start of the school year, Moskowitz and Hayman employed the Flint interaction analysis system to collect observational data in the classrooms of the three groups of teachers. Anecdotal records also were kept. Results indicated a number of significant differences in teaching behaviors during the first contact with classes between the "best," typical, and beginning teachers. Like Collea (1972), Moskowitz and Hayman (1974) found beginning teachers to be very direct with students. This behavior increased with time. And yet, their classroom situations rapidly deteriorated. Best teachers, however, compared with new teachers used relatively more indirect behaviors and joked more. The beginning teacher criticized student behavior more and more frequently at each successive observational period, thus indicating that beginning teachers were increasingly having control problems and that students were out of order.

One implication of the Moskowitz and Hayman (1974) investigation is that beginning teachers need specific training on how to establish an appropriate relationship from the beginning of their teaching assignment with students.

Nickel, Traugh, and Tilford (1976) studied concerns and problems of first-year junior high school teachers. To identify these problems and concerns, a workshop composed of 25 first-year junior high teachers at a medium-sized urban school district was held. The rationale for this method was to allow for interaction among teachers and between teachers and administration. A modified version of the confrontation meeting model designed by Richard Beckhard was utilized. Concerns and recommendations were organized into the categories of student behavior, teaching methodology, school environment, and community-school relations and presented to the Deputy Superintendent.

These authors concluded that the problems and concerns expressed by these 25 teachers during the workshop highlight several points which are important to both school districts and teacher education programs. Their concerns ranged over many issues affecting public education, e.g., racial integration, individualized instruction, and discipline. Discipline was the chief concern of 10 of the 25 participants.

Nickel, Traugh, and Tilford suggested that first-year junior high school teachers perceived themselves as being inundated by problems with which they feel ill-prepared to cope. School districts need to encourage communication among teachers and administrators. Problems and concerns of first-year teachers and questions about teacher education programs are presented.

Fuller and Brown (1975) found that concerns of teachers could be divided into three groups, with each group being more representative of a particular level of teacher experience. The three groups are presented:

> 1. Survival concerns—These are concerns about one's adequacy and survival as a teacher, about class control, about being liked by pupils, about supervisors' opinions, about being observed, evaluated, praised, and failed. These are concerns about feelings, and seem to be evoked by one's status as a student. Preservice teachers have more concerns of this type than in-service teachers.
>
> 2. Teaching situation concerns—These are concerns about having to work with too many students or having too many non-instructional duties, about time pressures, about inflexible situations, lack of instructional materials, and so on. These frustrations seem to be evoked by the teaching situation. In-service teachers have more concerns of this type than preservice teachers.
>
> 3. Pupil concerns—These are concerns about recognizing the social and emotional needs of pupils, about the inappropriateness of some curriculum material for certain students, about being fair to pupils, about tailoring content to individual students, and so on. Although such concerns cluster together, they are expressed by both preservice and in-service teachers. This may be because such concerns are associated with characteristics which cut across experience or because in-service teachers feel such concerns more while preservice teachers express more concern about everything than do in-service teachers.(pp. 37-38)

The first-year teacher should not be expected to know everything experienced teachers know. The preservice experience, including student teaching, cannot possibly alert the prospective teacher to everything which needs to be known. Experienced teachers can do much to help beginning teachers adjust to the many realities they face. Inservice experiences should focus on the many concerns of beginning teachers so that those who have concerns can have a place to have these concerns addressed.

In an attempt to promote the transition from teacher education to professional practice several states have initiated competency programs for beginning teachers. Georgia, South Carolina, Florida, and North Carolina are among the states with such programs. The program in North Carolina, named the Quality Assurance Program, is designed to couple observations of teachers with traditional paper-and-pencil tests as well as evaluating teacher training institutions in the state.

Ward (1981) reported requirements used in several states for certification of teachers. First, students planning to major in education must pass a basic skills test in reading, writing, and mathematics before entering teacher preparation programs. Second, the student must complete a full semester of student teaching that includes a performance evaluation. Third, the student must pass a written test in the subject matter areas for which certification is desired. Teacher training institutions use data from this measure to evaluate their programs. Finally, the program includes in-the-classroom observations by three persons (school principal, peer teacher, and person from a regional assessment center). The observation is geared to provide the beginning teacher with helpful information regarding strong and weak points. South Carolina reported that 60% of the beginning teachers had mastered all competencies during the first year of the program and that 85% of the teachers reported the evaluation to be a good experience.

The beginning teacher is likely to face numerous unanticipated challenges in the first years of teaching. No beginning teacher can afford to ignore these special challenges. Not every beginning teacher can be an expert instructor, but no one preparing to teach should lose sight of the fact that skillful teaching is the distinguishing mark toward which all should strive to attain.

STRESS AND ANXIETY IN TEACHING

Currently one is living in an age of stress. The teaching profession is not exempt from those encroachments which serve to make teaching itself a source of anxiety. Education, once viewed as a stable profession is crumbling under pressure to make it responsible to all persons served and to make it solve general societal problems.

Selye (1978) has defined stress as the "body's nonspecific response to any demand [physical, social or psychological] placed on it, whether that demand is pleasant or not" (p. 60). He described unpleasant or negative stress as "distress" and coined a new term "eustress" to describe pleasant or positive stress. The goal then, according to Selye is to cultivate positive attitudes toward distress, thereby turning it into eustress. The way by which this intent is accomplished is to quickly forget the negative incidents and avoid carrying grudges. Instead, one should seek his/her own level of stress, choose one's own goals, and make sure they are your own, and finally look out for self by being necessary to others and thereby earning their goodwill. Thus, one is able to define a given situation or event as either distress or eustress, defeating or motivating.

Stress can have either short-term or long-term effects on the body. Short-term stress can be positive and helpful. It may serve as the motivator to complete a task, or improve performance in a given area. Long-term stress is a negative experience which frequently manifests itself in increased body movements, insomnia, and irritability. It causes discomfort and a desire to leave the uncomfortable situation.

Alley (1980) identified four sources of stress. The categorization of stress is necessary so that one is able to develop strategies for reducing the negative impact of stress. The four sources are listed.

> **Personal.** This area includes inner fears, inner drives, ambitious, compulsiveness, energy, and the need to feel needed and successful.
>
> **Interpersonal.** Family relations, illnesses of children, interactions with students in classes, and conflicts with colleagues, are examples of interpersonal stressors.
>
> **Institutional.** This category includes school policies, governmental regulations, and public pressures which are a source of stress.
>
> **Societal.** Here the stressors are inflation, traffic, taxes, and smog. They relate to teaching only indirectly but are primary in their bearing on the lives of teachers. (pp. 7-8)

Perhaps the best known measure of stress is the Social Readjustment Rating Scale, Table 13.1, developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967). They

TABLE 13.1
Social Readjustment Rating Scale

Rank	Life event	Mean value
1	Death of spouse	100
2	Divorce	73
3	Marital separation	65
4	Jail term	63
5	Death of close family member	63
6	Personal injury or illness	53
7	Marriage	50
8	Fired at work	47
9	Marital reconciliation	45
10	Retirement	45
11	Change in health of family member	44
12	Pregnancy	40
13	Sex difficulties	39
14	Gain of new family member	39
15	Business readjustment	39
16	Change in financial state	38
17	Death of close friend	37
18	Change to different line of work	36
19	Change in number of arguments with spouse	35
20	Mortgage over $10,000	31
21	Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30
22	Change in responsibilities at work	29
23	Son or daughter leaving home	29
24	Trouble with in-laws	29
25	Outstanding personal achievement	28
26	Wife begin or stop work	26
27	Begin or end school	26
28	Change in living conditions	25
29	Revision of personal habits	24
30	Trouble with boss	23
31	Change in work hours or conditions	20
32	Change in residence	20
33	Change in schools	20
34	Change in recreation	19
35	Change in church activities	19
36	Change in social activities	18
37	Mortgage or loan less than $10,000	17
38	Change in sleeping habits	16
39	Change in number of family get-togethers	15
40	Change in eating habits	15
41	Vacation	13
42	Christmas	12
43	Minor violations of the law	11

NOTE. From "The Social Readjustment Rating Scale" by T. H. Holmes and R. H. Rahe, 1967, *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 11,* p. 216. Copyright 1967 by Journal of Psychosomatic Research. Reprinted by permission.

assigned values to significant life change units, emphasizing that both positive and negative changes increase the amount of stress in one's life.

One who wishes to complete this rating scale should identify the items which have occurred in his/her life over the last 12 months. Total the number of points for each item identified. If that total number of points exceeds 300 there is an 80% chance of illness in the near future; 150-299 points suggests a 50% chance of illness; and below 150 points offers a 30% chance of illness. One should be cautious about absolute interpretations because not all persons who go through these stressful events will become ill at the rates suggested. Obviously some people handle these events such that effects are reduced. Individual differences cannot be ignored in gauging the physical and emotional reactions to a given event. Conclusion does seem fairly clear: The more stress in one's life, the more likely one becomes a candidate for a stress-related illness.

What are the stress-related events associated with teaching? Cichon and Koff (1980) replicated the procedure employed by Holmes and Rahe and developed an inventory of the types of stress-related events associated with teaching. *The Teaching Events Stress Inventory (TESI)* was developed by the researchers and compared by 5,000 teachers employed by the Chicago Board of Education (see Table 13.2).

The TESI is a rank-order indicator of the relative degree of stress produced by certain events involved in teaching. These 36 events are ranked from the most stressful to the least stressful. Correlation patterns suggested that the relative degree of stress assigned to an event was stable across the sample. That is to say that regardless of age, race, sex, marital status, type of school, school size, or previous physical or mental illness, teachers shared common perceptions about stress associated with the profession. Also all events on the inventory are stress producing. When individual differences are taken into account, events in the least stressful area may be as significant to a teacher as a "more stressful" event may be to another teacher. This is so because teachers must not only deal with occupational stress (events from the TESI) but must deal with general life stresses (events from the Social Readjustment Rating Scale). Research does not offer insights as to which set of events may be more stress producing. Regardless of the cause or nature of stress, teacher stress and anxiety will have a negative effect on students because under stress concerns and attention of the teacher will focus on stress and take precedence over direct teaching activities.

TABLE 13.2
The Teaching Events Stress Inventory (TESI)

Rank	Event
1	Involuntarily transferred.
2	Managing "disruptive" children.
3	Notification of unsatisfactory performance.
4	Threatened with personal injury.
5	Overcrowded classroom.
6	Lack of availability of books and supplies.
7	Colleague assaulted in school.
8	Reorganization of classes or program.
9	Implementing board of education curriculum goals.
10	Denial of promotion or advancement.
11	Target of verbal abuse by student.
12	Disagreement with supervisor.
13	The first week of the school year.
14	Maintaining self-control when angry.
15	Teaching students who are "below average" in achievement level.
16	Maintaining student personnel and achievement records.
17	Preparing for a strike.
18	Supervising student behavior outside the classroom.
19	Change in duties/work responsibilities.
20	Dealing with community racial issues.
21	Seeking principal's intervention in a discipline matter.
22	Disagreement with another teacher.
23	Dealing with staff racial issues.
24	Teaching physically or mentally handicapped children.
25	Dealing with student racial issues.
26	Lavatory facilities for teachers are not clean or comfortable.
27	Developing and completing daily lesson plans.
28	Conference with principal/supervisor.
29	Evaluating student performance or giving grades.
30	Having a research or training program from "outside" in the school.
31	Attendance at inservice meetings.
32	Taking additional course work for promotion.
33	Talking to parents about their child's problems.
34	Dealing with students whose primary language is not English.
35	Teacher-parent conferences.
36	Voluntarily transferred.

NOTE. From "Stress and Teaching" by D. J. Cichon and R. H. Koff, 1980, *NASSP Bulletin, 64,* pp. 96-97. Copyright 1980 by National Association of Secondary School Principals. Reprinted by permission.

Evidence seems to indicate that the use of the term "burn-out" came into the professional literature when Freudenberger (1975) described feelings of many of his volunteers in free clinics. He recognized that the burn-out phenomenon was not unique to self-help groups but occurs among all workers regardless of the setting. He went on to say that burn-out operates differently in terms of degree from person to person. Maslach (1976) described persons who experience the most negative effects of on-the-job stress as psychologically "burned out" by the experience. Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) suggested a working definition of "burn-out" as

> a progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose experienced by people in the helping professions as a result of the conditions of their work. These conditions range from insufficient training to [student] overload; from too many hours to too little pay; from inadequate funding to ungrateful [students], from bureaucratic or political constraints to the inherent gap between aspiration and accomplishment. (p. 14)

Kossack and Woods (1980) have designed a *Teacher Burn-Out Checklist,* Table 13.3, to assess the degree to which teachers are experiencing the phenomenon. Not only does the checklist provide some indication of the relative degree of burn-out, it should serve as a general measure of how well a teacher is coping with the expectations of the profession.

The teaching profession is likely to experience burn-out more than other career groups because the expectations of education to be a "cure-all" for the ills of society places an unusual burden on teachers. Recent legislation provides additional bureaucratic burdens with no increased incentives. Teachers enter the profession because they like children and because they want to help children prepare for adult roles and responsibilities. When some teachers realize that their efforts are not meeting with success, they are likely to feel burned out.

In an attempt to prevent some stress associated with beginning teaching, Purkerson (1980) suggested the following list to strengthen survival skills of beginning teachers:

1. Make beginning teachers aware of non-teaching assignments before they show up for their first day of work.
2. Make sure that beginning teachers understand the legal requirements for in-service.
3. Go over the teaching contract.

TABLE 13.3
Teacher Burn-out Checklist

DIRECTIONS: Circle YES for those symptoms of burnout which apply to your situation; circle NO for those symptoms which do not relate.

YES NO 1. *FEELING IRREPLACEABLE.* Do you have feelings that you are indispensable? Do you haul yourself to school despite illness? Do you accept additional duties out of obligation or because you secretly believe no one else can do quite as good a job?

YES NO 2. *PROFESSIONAL MARTYR.* Do you take work home only to find that you do not complete it? Do you find, though you do not do it, that the work dominates your environment provoking guilt feelings?

YES NO 3. *PRESSURE.* Have you overextended yourself at work/home? Do you feel persistent pressure—too much to do and too little time?

YES NO 4. *PERSONAL HABITS.* Have you experienced relatively unusual changes in your personal habits lately? Do you have insomnia, colds, headaches, rashes lately? Do you find that you are taking more aspirin, sleeping pills, tranquilizers than you were a year ago? Are you drinking or smoking or eating more than a year ago?

YES NO 5. *TROUBLE WITH RELATIONSHIPS.* Are you impatient, irritable lately? Are discipline problems more noticeable? Are you having more arguments with spouse/friends/strangers lately?

YES NO 6. *LOW SELF-CONCEPT.* Do you find yourself with thoughts of self-blame, guilt, self-recrimination, anxiety? Do you feel powerrless to make a difference with your students? Do you lack a feeling of success/challenge? Are you thinking, "Why am I bothering to do this?"

YES NO 7. *DISSATISFACTION.* Do you feel as if nothing is going well? Do you find yourself talking about work most of the time, and are your conversations tending to be negative?

YES NO 8. *EVASION.* Do you use more ditto/board/workbook activities, audiovisual materials, support personnel to remove you from direct contact with students lately? Have you taken a larger number of sick days of late?

YES NO 9. *BOREDOM.* Do you "turn yourself off" as you enter the school? Do you feel as if you are operating as a robot, that you do not care enough to care? Have you lost your joy, enthusiasm?

YES NO 10. *ANGER.* The anxiety felt by teachers often stems from the lack of something concrete to fight. This anxiety leads to frustration, pessimism, and then to anger. Do you feel like fighting?

TABLE 13.3 Continued.

YES NO 11. *ESCAPE.* Do you hate coming to work? Do you get a knot in your stomach when you realize that the next day is a workday? Have you been tempted to drive on past the school, to move, to change jobs?

YES NO 12. *BREAKDOWN.* Have you had severe physical or mental illness of late? Have you had ulcers, high blood pressure, hypertension, colitis, nervous disorders?

INTERPRETATION

Educators who answered YES to:	Are:
one to three questions	Coping well with teaching frustrations
four to six questions	Slipping into warning stages; take preventative action
seven to nine questions	Sliding into alarming burnout reactions; take immediate action
ten to twelve questions	Burned out; take remedial action

NOTE. From "Teacher Burnout: Diagnosis, Prevention, Remediation" by S. W. Kossack and S. L. Woods, 1980, *Action in Teacher Education, 2,* pp. 29-30. Copyright 1980 by Action in Teacher Education. Reprinted by permission.

4. Explain salary and benefits.
5. Help them wade through the maze of how data processing is done in school.
6. Review the hierarchical structure of local and state teaching organizations and educational systems.
7. Invite them to join professional organizations.
8. Orient them to the Code of Ethics.
9. Help them decipher the growing list of acronyms. (pp. 47-50)

In terms of coping with job-related stress, a four-pronged attack to the problem is recommended. The first step is to recognize signs of stress. Signs may be physiological (increased heart rate, increased muscle tension, increased perspiration, decreased digestion), behavioral (difficulty in interpersonal relations, poor work performance or productivity, increases in amount of alcohol consumed, cigarettes smoked, or medications taken, or cognitive (negative self-statements, difficulty concentrating). The second step involves analyzing or determining the source(s) of stress. This can be accomplished by completing both the Social Readjustment Rating Scale and the Teaching Events Stress Inventory. Data from these two instruments should be useful in step three, the development of a stress management plan. A specific plan is to be develped which relates to the events found to be sources of stress. The following are general recommendations for coping with stress which are useful for all teachers regardless of the specific nature of stressors:

1. Seek professional experiences beyond classroom, i.e., workshops, professional meetings.
2. Keep alert of changing methods and philosophies. Try different teaching approaches.
3. Subscribe to professional magazines.
4. Use few, rather than many rules in the classroom. Set realistic, flexible goals.
5. Try to complete school work at school even if it means staying late.
6. Change teaching assignment, grade level, or school.
7. Get plenty of sleep, maintain proper diet, relax, and exercise regularly.
8. Get involved in a hobby.
9. Maintain friendships with non-teachers.
10. Maintain a good sense of humor.
11. Don't be afraid to make mistakes.

The program of stress reduction should be implemented and evaluated. So many efforts have failed because teachers did not implement a plan, continue it for some reasonable length of time, and evaluate its effectiveness. The effectiveness of a stress management plan can best be measured by noting changes in those signs which were identified with stress.

Teachers must continue to explore new avenues which lead to stress reduction. Because it is virtually impossible to provide a workable plan for all stresses or stressors, we have included an annotated bibliography of 25 sources which should prove useful.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON STRESS MANAGEMENT

Archer, Jr., J. A. (1982). *Managing anxiety and stress.* Muncie, IN: Accelerated Development.

This book has a holistic approach to anxiety management and encourages you to examine your anxiety process from many different angles. Contains simplified techniques and emphasizes application with steps for practice and self-assessment discussion questions.

Benson, H. (1975). *The relaxation response.* New York: William Merrow.

Offers techniques for dealing with stress and anxiety in normal life. Presentation includes theory, medical information and clear instructions.

Collins, G. (1977). *Relax and live longer.* Santa Ana, CA: Vision House Publishers.

Describes the causes of tension, reasons people do not relax, and offers specific techniques that foster relaxation.

Cooper, G.L., & Payne, R. (1978). *Stress at work.* New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Focuses on research, prevention, and treatment of stress in various occupational categories. Attention is also given to relationship between occupational environment and family life.

Culligan, M. (1980). *How to avoid stress before it kills you.* New York: Gramercy.

Focuses attention on normal stress and how to avoid distress or prolonged tension. Useful techniques are presented.

Forbes, R. (1979). *Life stress.* New York: Doubleday.

This book deals with stress in the home, stress involved in sexual relationships, stress caused by the redefinition of the role of women, and "stress-seekers." Stress reduction "lists" are offered to change behaviors.

Frankl, V. (1971). *Man's search for meaning.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Author describes personal experiences in a concentration camp and how he was able to develop a meaning in life. Useful to see how an extremely stressful situation contains potential for growth.

Freese, A. (1976). *Understanding stress.* New York: Public Affairs Pamphlets.

Presents causes of stress and the relationship between stress and illness. Offers a variety of stress reduction techniques.

Gawain, S. (1978). *Creative visualization.* Berkeley, CA: Whatever Publishing.

This book deals with relaxation techniques and creative ways to overcome negative concepts about life. Recommends fantasy as useful technique.

Giammatteo, M. C., & Giammatteo, D. M. (1980). *Executive well-being: Stress and administrators.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Designed for school administrators but useful for teachers as well. Contains numerous self-administered instructions to assess levels of stress. Emphasizes practical strategies for stress reduction.

Glasser, W. (1981). *Stations of the mind.* New York: Harper and Row.

Glasser suggested that stress results from outdated means of looking at situations. He offers techniques for changing behaviors by changing perceptions of events and experiences.

Gunderson, E. K., & Rahe, R. H. (Eds.). (1974). *Life stress and illnesses.* Springfield, Illinois.

A collection of research reports on the relationship of stress to illness. Contains contributions from medical researchers from around the world.

Kinser, N. S. (1979). *Stress and the American woman.* New York: Ballantine Books.

Discusses stressful situations unique to women from woman's perspective. Presents coping strategies for women. Extensive bibliography.

Koestenbaum, P. (1974). *Managing anxiety.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Contains an authenticity profile which the reader may complete as a measure of consciousness. Recommends the use of an E-I-F (emotional-intellectual-fantasy) Journal as means of learning to like and appreciate self. The Pain Test is a self-administered instrument designed to measure how much negativity you experience in your life.

Litvak, S. (1979). *Unstress yourself.* Phoenix, AZ: Mainstream Publishers.

This work presents various levels of stress reducers from instant relief to long range strategies. Author finds little use for definitions of stress and descriptions of stressful situations but instead recommends changes in lifestyles.

May, R. (1977). *The meaning of anxiety.* New York: Ronald Press.

Summarizes cultural, biological, philosophical, and psychological theories which seek to explain anxiety. Case studies are used to illustrate theories. Three self-administered checklists are offered to help reader explore anxiety.

Miller, W. C. (1979). *Dealing with stress: A challenge for educators.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Presents major causes of stress, results of stress, and strategies for preventing stress. Written for school administrators but useful for teachers.

Mitchell, L. (1979). *Simple relaxation: The physiological method for easing tension.* New York: Atheneum.

Offers simple, practical methods of relieving bodily tensions and stress. Particularly useful for those who find it difficult to relax.

Phillips, B. (1978). *School stress and anxiety.* New York: Human Sciences Press.

Focuses on stress of students and how to eliminate anxiety associated with academic achievement. Suggests activities for youth to learn to manage stress.

Powell, J. (1976). *Fully human fully alive.* Niles, IL: Argus Communications.

Offers five-step approach to more fully functioning: accepting oneself, being oneself, to forget oneself in loving, to believe, and to belong.

Samuels, M., & Bennett, H. (1974). *Be well.* New York: Random House.

Presents guide to rest, relaxation, and restoration. Attention given to health and ease as opposed to stress and disease.

Schuller, R. H. (1978). *Turning your stress into strength.* Irvine, CA: Harvest House.

Offers approach to eliminating stress based on religious point of view. Shows how stressful situations can be turned into positive perspective.

Selye, H. (1974). *Stress without disress.* New York: Lippincott.

Summarizes much of the research on stress. Theoretical and philosophical presentation of medical phenomenon in lay terminology.

Sharpe, R., & Lewis, D. (1977). *Thrive on stress.* New York: Warner Communications.

Self-directed guide to reducing stress based on programmed behavior. Discusses how stress can be turned into positive experience for the individual.

Unger, L. (1976). *Walking: The perfect exercise.* San Luis Obispo, CA: Impact Publishers.

Presents step-by-step approach to relief of stress through walking.

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Charters, W. W. (1970). Some factors affecting teacher survival in school districts. *American Educational Research Journal, 7,* 1-27.

Cichon, D. J., & Koff, R. H. (1980). Stress and teaching. *NASSP Bulletin, 64,* 91-104.

Collea, F. P. (1972). First year science teacher: A study of his intentions, perceptions, and verbal behaviors. *School Science and Mathematics, 72,* 159-164.

Edelwich, J., & Brodsky, A. (1980). *Burn-out.* New York: Human Sciences Press.

Fuller, F. F., & Brown, O. H. (1975). Becoming a teacher. In K. Ryan, *Teacher Education.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 25-52.

Freudenberger, H. J. (1975). The staff burn-out syndrome in alternative institutions. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 12,* 73-82.

Holmes, T.H., & Rahe, R.H. (1967). The social readjustment rating scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 11,* 213-218.

Kossack, S. W., & Woods, S. L. (1980). Teacher burnout: Diagnosis, prevention, remediation. *Action in Teacher Education, 2,* 29-35.

McGuire, W. H. (1979). Teacher burnout. *Today's Education, 68,* 5.

Mark, J. H., & Anderson, B. D. (1978). Teacher survival rates: A current look. *American Educational Research Journal, 15,* 379-383.

Maslach, C. (1976). Burned-out. *Human Behavior, 5,* 16-22.

Moskowitz, G., & Hayman, J. L. (1974). Interaction patterns of first-year, typical and "best" teachers in inner-city schools. *The Journal of Educational Research, 67,* 224-230.

Nickel, J., Traugh, C., & Tilford, M. (1976). Confrontation meeting: Identifying first year junior high school teachers' problems. *The Clearing House, 49,* 358-360.

Purkerson, R. A. (1980). Stress and the beginning teacher: And the walls came tumbling down. *Action in Teacher Education, 2,* 47-50.

Selye, H. (1978). Eustress. *Psychology Today, 11,* 60-70.

Ward, B. J. Summer (1981). Beginning teachers must make the grade. *National Assessment of Educational Progress Newsletter, 14,* 3.

CHAPTER 14

APPLYING STATISTICAL CONCEPTS TO TEST DATA

Most teachers administer standardized tests and they need to understand some of the basic statistical concepts needed to interpret results of these tests. In this chapter, therefore, is presented some basic statistical concepts that teachers may use to describe and interpret results of standardized tests.

Statistics are tools by which an individual may arrange and organize an array of data in order to make it meaningful and useful. One assumes that the teacher understands basic mathematical operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division), square roots, and simple algebraic concepts. A teacher may find it helpful to use a calculator to solve the problems presented in this chapter.

This chapter is divided into sections in which are described organizing data, illustrating data, measures of central tendency, measures of variability, and interpreting standardized tests. Where a formula is required, the formula will be presented first. This will be followed by word descriptions of what the letters and symbols represent. Problems will be given and explained in detail. The practical applications of the formula and interpretation of results will be emphasized in the explanation.

Although counselors are responsible for interpretation of standardized test results, teachers need to understand interpretation as well. With this purpose in mind the section on interpreting test data was included. This section includes a description of percentiles, grade equivalents, standard scores, and standard error of measurement.

After reading and working through this chapter, teachers will become familiar with the basic concepts of descriptive statistics. This familiarity should enable teachers to understand the meaning of standardized test results. To test for understanding, four problems are included at the end of the chapter.

ORGANIZING DATA

Ranking, frequency, and class intervals are three statistical concepts which may be used by teachers in organizing data. To illustrate these concepts, the results of a science test administered to seventh grade students will be used.

Ranking

One method for organizing test data is to rank order data from high to low. To rank the science test results, list them from highest to lowest and assign number one to the highest test result and twenty-nine to the lowest. The example then would appear as in Table 14.2.

TABLE 14.1

Results of a Science Test Administered to Seventh Grade Students

Student	Test Results	Student	Test Results
A	78	P	79
B	62	Q	66
C	82	R	65
D	84	S	99
E	94	T	71
F	86	U	64
G	84	V	98
H	78	W	77
I	97	X	66
J	84	Y	60
K	66	Z	84
L	72	AA	73
M	91	BB	84
N	96	CC	68
O	83		

TABLE 14.2

Ranking of Results from a Science Test Administered to Seventh Grade Students (Before giving same rank to those with the same score)

Rank	Student	Score	Rank	Student	Score
1	S	99	16	A	78
2	V	98	17	H	78
3	I	97	18	W	77
4	N	96	19	AA	73
5	E	94	20	L	72
6	M	91	21	T	71
7	F	86	22	CC	68
8	D	84	23	K	66
9	G	84	24	Q	66
10	J	84	25	X	66
11	Z	84	26	R	65
12	BB	84	27	U	64
13	O	83	28	B	62
14	C	82	29	Y	60
15	P	79			

If each student received a different score, the task would be complete. However, in the example, we find that some students received identical scores. Because of identical scores one must utilize additional steps.

First identify the identical scores. These scores are for those with ranks of 8 through 12, 16 and 17, and 23 through 25. Next find the average score for the three groups as follows:

Ranks	Ranks	Ranks
8	16	23
9	17	24
10		25
11		
12		
50	33	72
$\begin{array}{r} 10 \\ 5\overline{)\,50} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 16.5 \\ 2\overline{)\,33.0} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 24 \\ 3\overline{)\,72} \end{array}$

Assign the rank of 10 to those ranks of 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12; the rank of 16.5 to those ranks of 16 and 17; and the rank of 24 to those ranks of 23, 24, and 25. Then the results would be as shown in Table 14.3

Frequency (f)

Frequency (f) is the number of times a given score occurs in a distribution of scores. Frequencies need to be computed for class intervals, histograms, frequency polygons, and measures of central tendency. To illustrate determine the frequency for this seventh grade science test presented in the preeeding 3 tables.

The first task is to list the test scores from highest to lowest without listing repeating scores. The list would be as shown in Table 14.4

TABLE 14.3
Assigned Ranks to Reflect Differences in Scores and Those with Same Scores

Rank	Student	Score
1	S	99
2	V	98
3	I	97
4	N	96
5	E	94
6	M	91
7	F	86
10	D	84
10	G	84
10	J	84
10	Z	84
10	BB	84
13	O	83
14	C	82
15	P	79
16.5	A	78
16.5	H	78
18	W	77
19	AA	73
20	L	72
21	T	71
22	CC	68
24	K	66
24	Q	66
24	X	66
26	R	65
27	U	64
28	B	62
29	Y	60

TABLE 14.4
Test Scores Arranged for Determining Frequency

Test Score (X)	Count	Frequency (f)
99	1	1
98	1	1
97	1	1
96	1	1
94	1	1
91	1	1
86	1	1
84	~~1111~~	5
83	1	1
82	1	1
79	1	1
78	11	2
77	1	1
73	1	1
72	1	1
71	1	1
68	1	1
66	111	3
65	1	1
64	1	1
62	1	1
60	1	1
Total or Cumulative Frequency (Cf) =		29

Next, determine the frequency by counting the number of times that a given score occurs. Place the total number of times the given score occurs under the heading of frequency (f).

Although the scores are organized somewhat, results are still rather long and cumbersome. Therefore, in the next section on class intervals the data will be condensed.

Class Intervals (ci)

Class intervals are used to organize test data into groups which may be easily read by the teacher and others interested in the results. In addition, class intervals may be used to illustrate data when constructing histograms and frequency polygons.

Using the previous example of the seventh grade science test results, determine the class intervals. First, decide the number of class intervals to use. As a general rule, the number of class intervals never exceeds fifteen. Therefore, subtract the lowest score from the highest score and divide the difference by fifteen.

In the example, the highest score was 99 and the lowest score was 60. Using the following formula:

$$\text{Class Intervals} = \frac{\text{Highest Score minus Lowest Score}}{15}$$

$$\text{equals } \frac{99 \text{ minus } 60}{15} \quad \text{equals } \frac{39}{15}$$

equals 2.6 and rounding-off to the nearest digit

equals 3.0 Class Intervals

Therefore, data would have a class interval of 3 and would be arranged as shown in Table 14.5.

TABLE 14.5
Test Scores Arranged by Class Intervals
and Frequency in Each

Class Interval (ci)	Frequency (f)
100 - 98	2
97 - 95	2
94 - 92	1
91 - 89	1
88 - 86	1
85 - 83	6
82 - 80	1
79 - 77	4
76 - 74	0
73 - 71	3
70 - 68	1
67 - 65	4
64 - 62	2
61 - 59	1

The number in the frequency (f) column consists of the number of test scores within each class interval. Once the class interval (ci) and frequency (f) have been obtained, data may be illustrated using a histogram or a frequency polygon.

ILLUSTRATING DATA

Histogram or Bar Graph

The first method is to illustrate results of the science test by the use of a histogram or bar graph. The first step is to draw a horizontal line which has been marked off according to the established class intervals. Next, draw a vertical line which has been marked off according to the number of scores (frequency) in each class interval. The result would be as shown in Figure 14.1. Construct rectangles which include class intervals along the horizontal line and the frequency of each class interval along the vertical line.

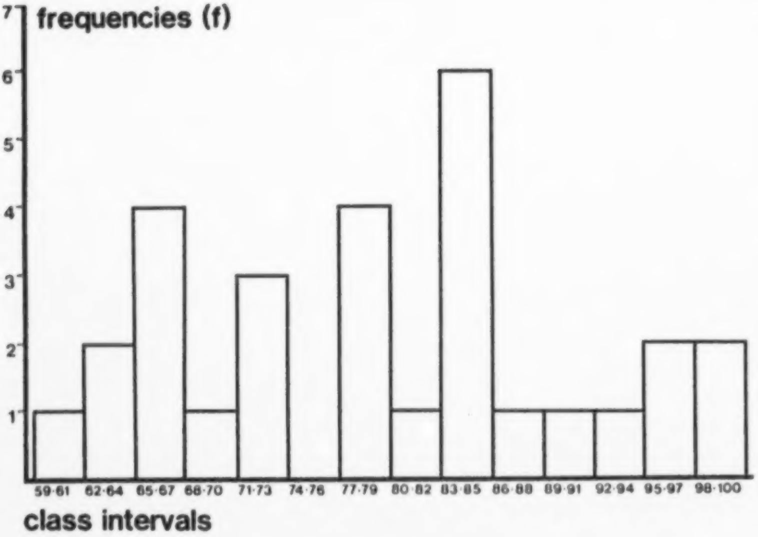

Figure 14.1. Test scores arranged as a histogram or bar graph.

Frequency Polygon

The second method which will be employed to illustrate the science test scores is the frequency polygon. A major difference between the histogram and frequency polygon is that the frequency polygon utilizes the midpoint of the class interval (middlemost score) instead of the entire class interval.

First, find midpoints for each class interval. Using the class intervals of the previous example, the midpoints are as shown in Table 14.6.

TABLE 14.6
Illustration of Identifying Midpoint and Frequency Needed to Produce a Frequency Polygon

Class Interval	(Middle Score) Midpoint	Frequency
98 - 100	99	2
95 - 97	96	2
92 - 94	93	1
89 - 91	90	1
86 - 88	87	1
83 - 85	84	6
80 - 82	81	1
77 - 79	78	4
74 - 76	75	0
71 - 73	72	3
68 - 70	69	1
65 - 67	66	4
62 - 64	63	2
59 - 61	60	1

Second, draw a horizontal line which has been marked off according to the established midpoints. Third, draw a vertical line which has been marked off according to the number of scores (frequency) for each midpoint. Fourth, mark a dot above each midpoint dot at a height opposite the frequency for that midpoint. Fifth, connect the dots with straight lines. The result is illustrated in Figure 14.2

The frequency polygon and the histogram contain essentially the same information and are easy to interpret.

MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

Three measures of central tendency are the mean (M or $\overline{X}$), the median (Mdn.), and the mode (Mo). Measures of central tendency describe the group of scores as a whole by using a single score to represent the group.

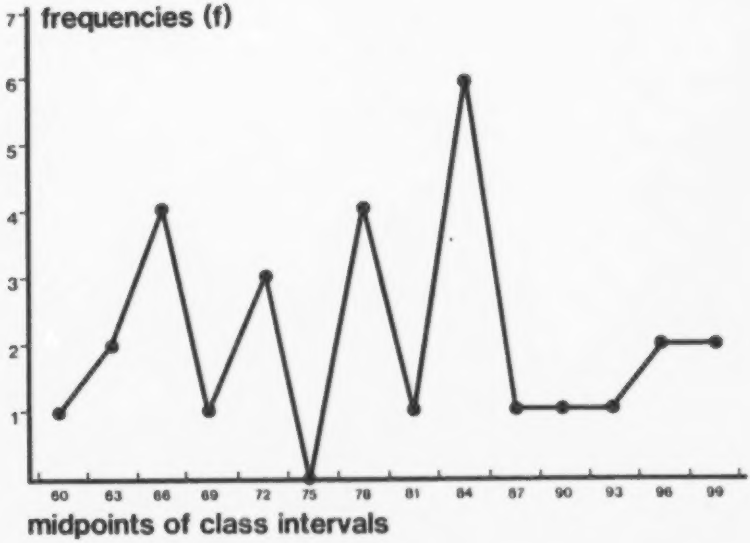

Figure 14.2. The frequency polygon for the test scores.

The purpose of this section is to acquaint the teacher with the three measures of central tendency and not with skills necessary with computing them. However, in describing the measures of central tendency, the computing mechanisms will be utilized in order to show how the three measures are derived. Because standardized test results often are reported for one or more measures of central tendency, the user needs to understand them.

Mode (Mo)

The mode (Mo) is very simple to identify. It is the most frequently occurring score in the distribution. For example, using results of the seventh grade science test the mode is 84 because it was earned by the largest number of students (5). In that example, only one mode was present however in other scores more than one mode may be present as illustrated in Table 14.7. This example has 90 and 81 as the modes because both scores were obtained by six students. In this example, one would describe this distribution as being bi-modal. In addition to a single mode and bi-modal, distributions may be tri-modal or multi-modal.

TABLE 14.7
Illustration of Scores with Two Modes

Score (X)	Frequency (f)
92	3
90	6
88	4
85	2
81	6
78	1
74	2

Median (Mdn)

The median is a measure of central tendency which describes the middle score in a distribution. It divides the distribution in half and is a useful measure in understanding percentiles. Results of the science test will be used to illustrate the point as shown in Table 14.8.

Table 14.8
Test Scores with Ranks and Median Score

Rank	Science Test Scores (X)	Rank	Science Test Scores (X)
1	99	15	79Mdn
2	98	16.5	78
3	97	16.5	78
4	96	18	77
5	94	19	73
6	91	20	72
7	86	21	71
10	84	22	68
10	84	24	66
10	84	24	66
10	84	24	66
10	84	26	65
13	83	27	64
14	82	28	62
		29	60
			N equals 29

In the preceding distribution of scores, Table 14.8, the median is 79 because it is the middle number and divides the top half from the bottom half of scores.

The next example will use class intervals for calculating the median. This method is more complicated than the previous example, but it is used to further illustrate methods of determining the median.

TABLE 14.9
Illustration of Median in a Class Interval Distribution

Class Interval (ci)	Frequency (f)	Sum of the Frequencies (cf)
100 - 98	2	29
97 - 95	2	27
94 - 92	1	25
91 - 89	1	24
88 - 86	1	23
85 - 83	6	22
82 - 80	1	16
79 - 77	4	15
76 - 74	0	11
73 - 71	3	11
70 - 68	1	8
67 - 65	4	7
64 - 62	2	3
61 - 59	1	1

Class Interval equals 3   N equals 29

To calculate the median in this class interval example, divide the total number (N = 29) by 2. The result, 14.5, would yield the median (Mdn). However, in examining the sum of the frequencies (cf) column, one cannot find 14.5. Then locate the interval in which the total number is immediately below the desired number of 14.5. In the example, this number is 11. The median then is somewhere within the class interval 77-79, the next class interval above the frequency where 11 occurred. This example is illustrated in Table 14.9.

Before proceeding, it is necessary to illustrate what is referred to as upper and lower boundaries of class intervals. For example, to illustrate the upper and lower boundary for some class intervals, three class intervals and their respective boundaries are shown in Table 14.10.

TABLE 14.10
Illustration of Upper and Lower Boundaries for Class Intervals

Class Intervals	Upper and Lower Boundaries
82 - 80	82.5 - 79.5
79 - 77	79.5 - 76.5
76 - 74	76.5 - 73.5

Now turn attention to the median. The following formula is used to calculate the median.

$$\text{Median} = \text{Lower Boundary} + \frac{(\tfrac{1}{2}\text{N} - \text{Sum of Frequencies below the Mdn})}{\text{Frequency within the Class Interval}} \times \text{Size of Class Interval}$$

In the example:

Where: Lower Boundary of (77-79) = 76.5
½ of N (29) = 14.5
Sum of Frequencies Below (77-79) = 11
Size of Class Interval = 3

Using this information in the formula:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Median} &= 76.5 + \frac{(14.5 - 11)}{4} \times 3 \\
&= 76.5 + \frac{(3.5)}{4} \times 3 \\
&= 76.5 + \frac{(10.5)}{4} \\
&= 76.5 + 2.625 \\
&= 79.125 \\
\text{Median} &= 79
\end{aligned}$$

Mean ($\overline{X}$)

Most teachers have calculated the mean when computing the average of grades for a student. The mean is equal to the arithmetic average. The following test scores will be used to compute the mean:

$\bar{X}a$ - Scores for Student A	$\bar{X}b$ - Scores for Student B
81	81
78	78
92	92
84	84
95	65

First add all the scores for each student. The sum of scores (ΣX) for student A is 430 and 400 for student B. Next, divide the sum of scores (ΣX) by the total number of scores (n) for each student. In the example, five scores are given for each student, therefore, divide the sum of scores by 5:

Mean ($\bar{X}$)

$$\begin{array}{r} 86 \\ 5\overline{)430} \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 80 \\ 5\overline{)400} \end{array}$$

Using the formula for the mean ($\bar{X}$): $\bar{X} = \frac{X}{N}$

$$\frac{\text{Student A}}{\bar{X}a = \frac{430}{5} = 86} \qquad \frac{\text{Student B}}{\bar{X}b = \frac{400}{5} = 80}$$

As a final example, compute the mean for the seventh grade science test.

$$\bar{X} \text{ science test } = \frac{X}{N}$$

Where: $N = 29$

The sum of the 29 scores is 2,291

Using the formula: $\bar{X}$ science test $= \frac{2{,}291}{29}$

$$\bar{X} = 79$$

In the next section on measures of variability, the measures of central tendency will be used to determine the spread or variability of scores. Measures of variability will enable one to further describe data.

MEASURES OF VARIABILITY

Three measures of variability are the range (R), quartile deviation (Q), and standard deviation (SD). Measures of variability indicate the spread of scores for the group of students who took a test and thus provide more information to the measures of central tendency discussed previously.

Each of the measures of central tendency has a corresponding measure of variability. For example, the mode has the range, the median has the quartile deviation, and the mean has the standard deviation.

Range (R)

The range (R) is very simple to identify. To compute the range, one would simply find the difference between the highest and lowest scores. For example, suppose we wanted to determine the range for the following sets of scores:

A	B	C	D
94	99	94	99
90	90	90	90
88	88	88	88
74	74	84	84

Range of A equals 94 minus 74 equals 20
Range of B equals 99 minus 74 equals 25
Range of C equals 94 minus 84 equals 10
Range of D equals 99 minus 84 equals 15

Notice in the example that if the highest, lowest, or both scores change, the range also may change. Thus, the range is not a stable measure of variability.

Quartile Deviation (Semi-Interquartile Range)

The quartile deviation (Q) is found by (1) locating the 25th percentile and the 75th percentile for the data, (2) subtracting the 25th percentile from the 75th percentile, and (3) dividing the result by 2.

Illustrations:

Example 1 Q_3 = 75th percentile = 83
Q_2 = 50th percentile = 73 = (median)
Q_1 = 25th percentile = 63

$$\text{Quartile deviation} = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{2} = \frac{83 - 63}{2} = \frac{20}{2} = 10$$

Example 1 Q_3 = 75th percentile = 80
Q_2 = 50th percentile = 75 = (median)
Q_1 = 25th percentile = 70

$$\text{Quartile deviation} = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{2} = \frac{80 - 70}{2} = \frac{10}{2} = 5$$

In the first example the Q is 10 and in the second example is 5. Conclude therefore, that the smaller the Q, the closer the scores are between the 25th to the 75th percentile. The spread of scores or the variability in the second example is less than the spread of scores in the first example.

Standard Deviation (SD)

The most commonly used measure of variability is the standard deviation. It corresponds to the mean and is computed by using the mean. Find the standard deviation (spread of scores) using test scores shown in Table 14.11.

The first step is to find the arithmetic average for the 20 scores. To do this add the 20 test scores and divide the sum by 20. The sum of scores is 1600 and dividing by 20 one obtains 80. Therefore, 80 is the average score or the mean ($\overline{X}$). Using the formula for mean:

$$\text{Mean } (\overline{X}) = \frac{X}{N} = \frac{1600}{20} = 80$$

TABLE 14.11
Test Scores for Use in Figuring Standard Deviation

Student	Test Score
A	95
B	93
C	92
D	92
E	87
F	85
G	84
H	82
I	81
J	81
K	79
L	78
M	77
N	77
O	74
P	72
Q	71
R	70
S	65
T	65
N equals 20	

Next, subtract the mean from each test score (Test Score minus Mean) to obtain the difference. The process is illustrated in Table 14.12. Results are found in the 3rd column. Be careful to list negative numbers. The third step is to eliminate the negative numbers. Square all numbers in the 3rd column, list them in the 4th column (Table 14.12) and find the sum (X^2) of the squared scores for this column. The result is 1512.

TABLE 14.12
Illustration of the Process for Calculating the Standard Deviation

Student	Score	$(X - \bar{X}) = X$ Test Score − Mean = Difference	X^2 Squared Difference
A	95	95 − 80 = 15	225
B	93	93 − 80 = 13	169
C	92	92 − 80 = 12	144
D	92	92 − 80 = 12	144
E	87	87 − 80 = 7	49
F	85	85 − 80 = 5	25
G	84	84 − 80 = 4	16
H	82	82 − 80 = 2	4
I	81	81 − 80 = 1	1
J	81	81 − 80 = 1	1
K	79	79 − 80 = 1	1
L	78	78 − 80 = − 2	4
M	77	77 − 80 = − 3	9
N	77	77 − 80 = − 3	9
O	74	74 − 80 = − 6	36
P	72	72 − 80 = − 8	64
Q	71	71 − 80 = − 9	81
R	70	70 − 80 = −10	100
S	65	65 − 80 = −15	225
T	65	65 − 80 = −15	225
N = 20	Sum = 1600		Sum of X^2 = 1532

Finally, refer to the formula for the standard deviation and substitute the values in the formula.

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Sum of } X^2}{\text{Total number of scores}}} = \sqrt{\frac{EX^2}{N}}$$

Substituting 1512 for EX^2 and 20 for N, we have:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{1512}{20}}$$

$$= \sqrt{75.6}$$

$$SD = 8.69 \text{ or } 8.7$$

Taking the square root of 75.6, obtain 8.69 or 8.7 which is the standard deviation for our sample test data.

Referring to Figure 14.3 discover that 3 standard deviations above and below the mean contain 99.7% of the total number of scores in the sample. To better understand the standard deviation, look at the following examples using data in Table 14.12.

One SD above and below the mean would include the following scores:

$1\ SD - \overline{X}; \overline{X} + 1\ SD$

$8.7 - 80; 80 + 8.7$

$81.3; 88.7$

Two SD above and below the mean would include the following scores:

$(2 \times SD) - \overline{X}; \overline{X} + (2 \times SD)$

$(2 \times 8.7) - 80; 80 + (2 \times 8.7)$

$17.4 - 80; 80 + 17.4$

$62.6; 97.4$

Three SD above and below the mean would include the following scores:

$3 \times SD - \overline{X}; \overline{X} + (3 \times SD)$

$(3 \times 8.7) - 80; 80 + (3 \times 8.7)$

$26.1 - 80; 80 + 26.1$

$53.9; 106.1$

Therefore, according to Figure 14.3, 1 SD above and below the mean would include 68.26% of the total sample; 2 SD above and below the mean would include 95.44% of the total sample; and 3 SD above and below the mean would include 99.72% of the total sample.

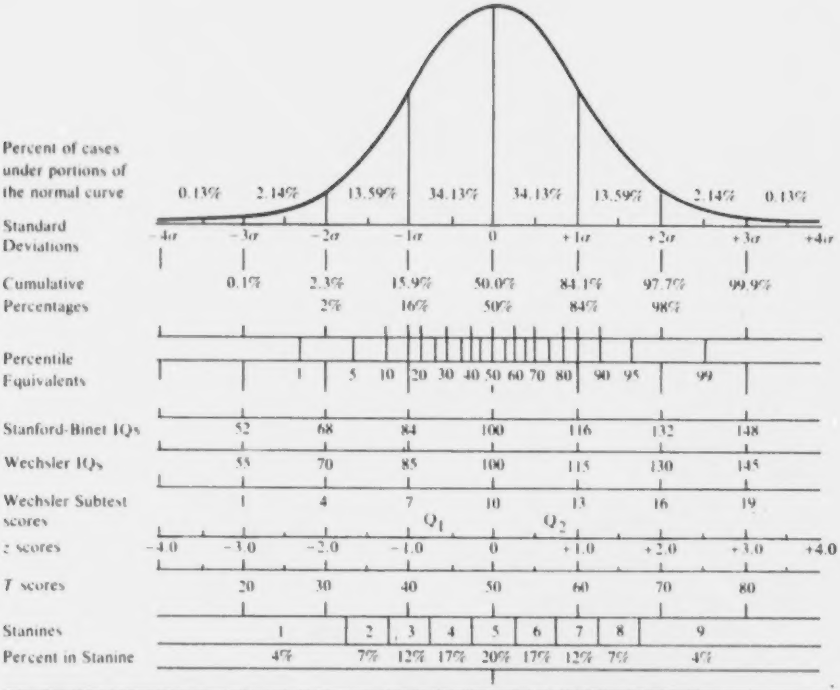

Figure 14.3. The normal curve, percentiles, and selected standard scores.
NOTE. From *Test Service Notebook 148—Methods of Expressing Test Scores*, 1980, New York: The Psychological Corporation. Reprinted by permission.

INTERPRETING STANDARDIZED TESTS

The school counselor is usually responsible for interpreting standardized test results. He/she has received specialized training in this area. However, teachers too must understand the interpretation. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to enable teachers to understand some of the most commonly used statistical concepts. Some of these concepts will be developed in this section.

Norms

Standardized tests are normed. This means that the test was administered to a population of students within a given age or grade level. Results of this norming become a frame of reference by which future students may be compared. Norms may be given in percentiles, grade-equivalents, T-scores, or stanines.

Percentiles

The most popular methods of reporting standardized test scores are by means of percentiles and grade-equivalents. A percentile describes a student's position within the established norming group. The example will use results of a standardized mathematics test given to fourth grade students during the seventh month of school (grade 4.7).

Interpret results of students C, E, and K using percentiles. Students C, E, and K, obtained percentiles 87, 8, and 90 respectively. The percentile score of 87 means that student C equaled or did better than 87% of the students in the norming group, only 13% of the students in the norming group did better than student C. For student E, the percentile of 8 means that student E equaled or did better than 8% of the students in the group, and 92% of the norming group did better than E. Likewise, for student K, the percentile of 90 means that student K equaled or did better than 90% of the students in the norming group, only 10% of the group did better than K.

Grade Equivalents

Grade equivalents are presented in terms of grade and month based on a 10 month school year. Interpret results of students B, F, and L. Students B, F, and L, obtained grade equivalents of 4.8, 4.0, and 5.1 respectively. The grade equivalent of 4.8 means that student B did as well as the average student who has completed the 8th month of the fourth grade. Students F's score of 4.0 means that this student did as well as the average student beginning the fourth grade. Thus, for student L, the grade equivalent of 5.1 means that L did as well as the average student in the first month of the fifth grade.

One would expect the 4th grade students, who were tested during the 7th month, to obtain a grade equivalent score of 4.7. This score corresponds to a percentile of 50 which is the expected score for this group of students (4.7).

Standard Scores

Although standard scores are not as widely used as percentiles and grade equivalents, they are nevertheless, worth mentioning and understanding. For example, the *Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), Graduate Record Examination (GRE),* and *College Entrance Examination Board* scores report standard scores. One may gain a better understanding of standard scores by referring to Figure 14.3 as the following sections are read.

Z-Scores

The foundation for all standard scores is the Z-score. Z-scores are computed by using the raw score (number of correct items), the mean, and the standard deviation of the population. The formula used to compute the Z-score is

$$\text{Z-score} = \frac{\text{Raw Score} - \text{Mean}}{\text{Standard Deviation}}$$

For example, suppose that the following results are obtained:

Mean ($\overline{X}$) = 82
Standard Deviation = 6

TABLE 14.13
Standardized Mathematics Test Scores for Fourth Grade Students Obtained During the Seventh Month of School (Grade 4.7)

Student	National Percentile	Grade Equivalent
A	67	5.3
B	54	4.8
C	87	6.4
D	25	3.8
E	8	3.2
F	29	4.0
G	78	5.8
H	53	4.8
I	92	6.7
J	63	5.2
K	90	6.6
L	60	5.1
M	76	5.7
N	25	3.8
O	67	5.3
P	83	6.2
Q	60	5.1
R	93	7.0
S	32	4.0
T	99	9.1
U	82	6.0

The Z-scores for the following raw scores will be computed.

$X = 91$
$X = 82$
$X = 60$

Using these raw scores in the formula, one finds

$$\text{For } X = 91 \quad Z = \frac{91-82}{6} = \frac{9}{6} = 1.5$$

$$\text{For } X = 82 \quad Z = \frac{82-82}{6} = \frac{0}{6} = 0$$

$$\text{For } X = 60 \quad Z = \frac{60-82}{6} = \frac{-12}{6} = -2.00$$

One discovers that the Z-scores may be negative or positive and sometimes result in decimal fractions. These scores are difficult to report to students and parents because of the zero and decimal fractions. Therefore, standard scores eliminate negative numbers and zeros and make results more meaningful.

The relationship between Z-scores and standard scores will be demonstrated by deriving standard scores from Z-scores. A general formula may be used for standard scores using an arbitrary mean and standard deviation. In all cases, Z-score and standard deviation are multiplied and the mean is added to the result.

Standard Score = (Z-score x Standard Deviation) + Mean

For T-scores, a standard deviation of 10 and a mean of 50 is used. In the example of Z-scores preceding, the following T-scores are obtained:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{T-score} &= (Z \times 10) + 50 \\ \text{For Z of 1.5; T-score} &= (1.5 \times 10) + 50 \\ &= 15 + 50 \\ &= 65 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For Z of 0: T-score} &= (0 \times 10) + 50 \\ &= 0 + 50 \\ &= 50 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For Z of } -2.00\text{: T-score} &= (-2.00 \times 10) + 50 \\ &= -20 + 50 \\ &= 30 \end{aligned}$$

For stanine scores, a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 5 is used. Using the example of Z-scores, the following scores are obtained:

$$\text{Stanine} = (Z \times 2) + 5$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For Z of 1.5: Stanine} &= (1.5 \times 2) + 5 \\ &= 3 + 5 \\ &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } Z \text{ of } 0\text{: Stanine} &= (0 \times 2) + 5 \\ &= 0 + 5 \\ &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } Z \text{ of } -2.00\text{: Stanine} &= (-2.00 \times 2) + 5 \\ &= -4 + 5 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

The final standard score which will be described is that used to derive SAT and GRE scores. These scores have a standard deviation of 100 and a mean of 500. Using the example of Z-scores, the following scores are obtained:

$$\text{SAT} = (Z \times 100) + 500$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } Z \text{ of } 1.5\text{: SAT} &= (1.5 \times 100) + 500 \\ &= 150 + 500 \\ &= 650 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } Z \text{ of } 0\text{: SAT} &= (0 \times 100) + 500 \\ &= 0 + 500 \\ &= 500 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } Z \text{ of } -2.00\text{: SAT} &= (-200 \times 100) + 500 \\ &= -200 + 500 \\ &= 300 \end{aligned}$$

Standard Error of Measurement (SE meas.)

The standard error of measurement (SE meas.) is a means of determining the reliability (consistency) of an individual test score. It answers the questions, What are the chances that a student's true score (the score that would be obtained if the test had perfect reliability or a coefficient of 1.00) is within a given range of the score obtained on the test? or What are the chances that a student's score would be the same if the test were taken for a second, third, or fourth time?

For example, if one administered a standardized test to a student, one would obtain a score (actual score on the test). Suppose one wanted to determine the accuracy of the actual score. One method would be to administer the test a second and third time. Because this would be very time consuming, an alternative method would be to use the standard error of measurement. The standard error of measurement is usually found in the test manual, or one may calculate it using a simple formula, which is presented:

$$\text{Standard Error of Measurement} = \text{Standard Deviation times} \sqrt{1 - \begin{matrix}\text{Reliability} \\ \text{Coefficient}\end{matrix}}$$

For example, suppose that a student obtained a raw score of 42 on a standardized test which has a standard deviation of 6 and a reliability coefficient of .91. What is the standard error of measurement? What are the chances that a student's true score will fall within this range: two out of three times (66% of the times); 19 out of 20 times (95% of the times); or 99 out of 100 times (99% of the times)?

Using the SD of 6 and the reliability coefficient of .91 in the formula, find:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SE meas.} &= \text{SD} \sqrt{1 - \text{RC}} \\ \text{SE meas.} &= 6 \sqrt{ - .91} \\ &= 6 \sqrt{.09} \\ &= 6 \times .3 = 1.8 \end{aligned}$$

Using the obtained raw score of 42 and the standard error of measurement of 1.8, find the range (lower and upper score) for the three possibilities using the formulas as shown.

1. For two out of three times:

$$\begin{matrix}\text{SE} \\ \text{MEAS.}\end{matrix} - \begin{matrix}\text{RAW} \\ \text{SCORE}\end{matrix} + \begin{matrix}\text{SE} \\ \text{MEAS.}\end{matrix}$$

$$\mathbf{40.2} = 1.8 - 42 \qquad + 1.8 = \mathbf{43.8}$$

2. For 19 out of 20 times:

$$\begin{matrix}\text{2 SE} & & \text{RAW} & & \text{2 SE}\\ \text{MEAS.} & - & \text{SCORE} & + & \text{MEAS.}\end{matrix}$$

$$(2 \times 1.8) - 42 \quad + (2 \times 1.8)$$

$$38.4 = (3.6) - 42 \quad + (3.6) = 45.6$$

3. For 99 out of 100 times:

$$\begin{matrix}\text{3 SE} & & \text{RAW} & & \text{3 SE}\\ \text{MEAS.} & - & \text{SCORE} & + & \text{MEAS.}\end{matrix}$$

$$(3 \times 1.8) - 42 \quad + (3 \times 1.8)$$

$$36.6 = (5.4) - 42 \quad + (5.4) = 47.4$$

If results of the test were reported in percentiles, one would locate the corresponding percentiles for the range of raw scores. The result would be presented by bands of percentiles for (40.2 - 43.8), (38.4 - 45.6), or (36.6 - 47.4).

The standard error of measurement, therefore reports that if a student were given the test again, two out of three times or 66% of the time, the student's true score would fall somewhere between the raw scores of 40.2 and 43.8. Only one out of three or 33% of the time would the student's true score be outside of the 40.2 and 43.8 range.

If one wanted to be 95% accurate, one would expand the range by using two times the standard error of measurement. In this case, one would say that 19 out of 20 times or 95% of the time, the student's true score would be within the 38.4 - 45.6 range. Only one out of 20 or 5% of the time would the true score fall outside of the 38.4 - 45.6.

However, if one wanted to be 99% accurate, one would expand the range by using three times the standard error of measurement. In this case, one would say that 99 times out of 100 or 99% of the time, the student's true score would be within the 36.6 - 47.4 range. Only one time out of 100 administrations would the student's true score fall outside of the 36.6 - 47.4 range.

Therefore, a teacher using the standard error of measurement would be able to make predictions about a student's true score and be accurate 66%, 95%, or 99% of the time depending upon the number of standard errors of measurement used.

ACTIVITIES

1. *Identify the following statistical symbols:*

   a. f
   b. $\overline{X}$
   c. *Mdn*
   d. *Mo*
   e. *ci*
   f. *cf*
   g. N
   h. *SD*
   i. Z
   j. *SE meas.*

2. *Given the following set of twenty scores:*

69	*69*	*40*	*53*	*88*
69	*88*	*88*	*53*	*88*
40	*69*	*88*	*28*	*53*
88	*69*	*88*	*72*	*63*

   a. Rank the scores
   b. *Find the mean and mode*
   c. *Illustrate the data using a histogram or frequency polygon*
   d. *What is the range?*

3. *You have received results of a standardized achievement test for a third grade class. Results are reported in Table 14.14 by grade equivalents and percentiles.*

   a. *Parents of students A, E, and J have come to you for an explanation of their children's scores. How would you explain their results?*

b. *Which students scored at the median on the language test?*
c. *Which students may need additional help in reading, language, and mathematics?*

TABLE 14.14
Standardized Achievement Language Test Scores for a Third Grade Class in the Eighth Month of School (Grade 3.8)

	READING		LANGUAGE		MATH	
Student	G.E.	%ile	G.E.	%ile	G.E.	%ile
A	2.6	22	3.7	50	3.9	57
B	3.4	39	4.3	63	3.8	53
C	2.4	17	3.3	39	3.7	49
D	3.3	37	3.7	50	4.8	85
E	3.4	41	3.4	42	3.4	34
F	5.9	90	7.9	94	5.3	93
G	4.8	77	6.2	85	3.5	40
H	3.0	31	4.1	59	4.2	66
I	3.2	34	2.6	22	3.6	44
J	7.0	97	6.8	90	5.1	89

4. *Obtain a copy of a standardized achievement test manual from your school or a testing laboratory in an institution of higher education.*

   a. *How are the test scores reported?*
   b. *What is the N for the sample population?*
   c. *What is the Standard Deviation for the sample population?*
   d. *What is the Standard Error of Measurement?*

SUMMARY

Although the interpretation of standardized tests should remain with the counselor, a teacher needs to understand the concepts used.

Teachers were given alternative methods used to organize test data and for illustrating results. Following this discussion, three measures of central tendency and variability were explained using sample data. Percentiles, standard scores, and standard error of measurement were discussed to provide an understanding of how standardized tests results are reported.

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- Emphasizes the application of psychological principles in the classroom to help students learn academic material better

- Unifies teaching and psychological skills for improving student-teacher relationships

- Illustrates how teachers may be more effective

- Prepares teachers to fulfill the new role expected of them in today's schools — performing tasks once considered outside the teacher's role

- Uses psychological techniques in essential teaching processes

- Encourages teachers to more fully utilize the conjoint efforts of professionals — teachers, counselors, and school psychologists

- Helps teachers gain the know-how for establishing an improved learning environment

- Enables teachers to learn skills that will make their jobs more enjoyable and help students learn more

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